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THE ORIGIN OF SPECIES

BY MEANS OF NATURAL SELECTION

THE DESCENT OF MAN

AND SELECTION IN RELATION TO SEX

BY CHARLES DARWIN



WILLIAM BENTON *Publisher*

ENCYCLOPÆDIA BRITANNICA INC

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served and unfavorable ones to be destroyed. The result would be the formation of a new species. Here then I had at last a theory by which to work.

He confided this theory to Hoofer and Lyell who urged him to write out his views for publication. But Darwin worked deliberately; he was only half through his projected book when in the summer of 1858 he received an essay from A. R. Wallace at Ternate in the Moluccas containing exactly the same theory as his own. Darwin submitted his dilemma to Hooker and Lyell to whom he wrote: "Your words have come!"

A previous year together with Wallace's essay the joint work being entitled *On the Tendency of Species to form Varieties and on the Impertuation of Varieties and Species by Natural Means of Selection*.

A year later on November 23, 1859 *The Origin of Species* appeared. The entire first edition of 1,200 copies was sold on the day of publication. A storm of controversy arose over the book reaching its height at a meeting of the British Association at Oxford where the celebrated duel between H. Huxley and Bishop Wilberforce took place. Darwin who could not sleep when he answered an antagonist harshly took Lyell's advice and saved both time and temper by avoiding the fray.

In his work however he stayed close to his thesis. He expanded the material of the first chapter of the *Origin* into a

tion to Sex (1871). Darwin fulfilled his statement in the *Origin* that light would be thrown on the origin of man and his history. The *Expression of the Emotions* (1872) offered a natural explanation of phenomena which appeared to be a difficulty in the way of the acceptance of evolution. His last works were concerned with the form, movement, and fertilization of plants.

Darwin's existence at Down was peculiarly adapted to preserve his energy and give direct order to his activity. Because of his continual ill health his wife took pains to shield him from every avoidable annoyance. He observed the same routine for nearly forty years, his days being carefully parcelled into intervals of exercise and light reading in such proportions that he could utilize to his fullest capacity the four hours he devoted to work. His scientific reading and experimentation as well were organized with the most rigorous economy. Even the phases of his intellectual life non-essential to his work became as he put it atrophied—a fact which he regretted as a loss of happiness. Such non-scientific reading as he did was purely for relaxation and he thought that a law ought to be passed against unhappy endings.

was
 His son Francis marvelled that he could preserve it with such an undemonstrative race as we are. When he died on April 19, 1882 his family wanted him to be buried at Down but the feeling decreed that he should be interred in Westminster Abbey where he was laid beside Sir Isaac Newton.

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But with regard to the material world, we can at least go so far as this—
 we can perceive that events are brought about not by insulated interposi-
 tions of Divine power exerted in each particular case but by the estab-
 lishment of general Laws.

WHEWELL *Brilliant Cause*

The only distinct meaning of the word natural is a fixed settled
 since what is natural as much requires and presupposes an inter-
 agent to render it so, to effect it continually or at stated times, as
 what is supernatural or miraculous does to effect it for once

BUTLER *Analogy of Revealed Religion*

Therefore let us refrain from a weak conceit of sobriety or

propriety

Bacon *Essays*

AN HISTORICAL SKETCH

OF THE PROGRESS OF OPINION ON THE ORIGIN OF SPECIES PREVIOUSLY TO THE PUBLICATION OF THE FIRST EDITION OF THIS WORK

I will here give a brief sketch of the progress of opinion on *The Origin of Species* until recently, in order to justify the naturalists be-

lieve that species undergo modification.

MODERN OPINIONS

As Buffon, Bosc, and others pointed out the great difference between the different periods, as he does not content himself with the means of the transformation of species, I need not here enter into details.

attributing to the probability of all change in the organic, as well as in the inorganic world, being the result of law and not of miraculous interposition. Lamarck seems to have been chiefly led to his conclusions by the gradual change of species, by the difficulty of distinguishing species and varieties, by the almost perfect gradation of forms in certain groups, and by the analogy of domestic productions. With respect to the means of modification, Lamarck attributed some things to the direct action of the physical conditions, and something to the cross-fertilization of the forms, and in many cases used the same terms, to the effects of habit. The latter, however, seem to attribute to all the beautiful adaptations in nature - the long neck of the giraffe for

MODERN OPINIONS

progress, a rule to account of the existence of the present of simple productions, he

4. early in 1815 in the Introduction to his *Histoire naturelle des animaux sans vertèbres*. In these works he published the doctrine that all species, including man, are descended from other species. He first did the same in the case of animals.

Lamarck's theory is, of course, expected, as early as 1809 that what he called species were variable, and that they were of the same type. It was not until 1828 that he published his conclusion that the same forms have not been perpetuated since

I

is given of Buffon's conclusion. The same subject. It can be hardly imagined that the Doctor Erasmus Darwin anticipated the view of error in the progress of Lamarck's *Zoonomicon* (1801, pp. 500-10) published in 1804. According to Lamarck's theory, it is not that Goethe was a true partisan of Lamarck's view, as with the introduction of Lamarck's little in 1804 did not publish till long afterwards he has positively remarked (Goethe's *Vorleser* to Dr. Karl Meisinger, 34) that the future quest for naturalists will be for the sake of their horns, and that they have used it in a rather singular instance of the manner in which similar views arise about the same time that Goethe, Germ. y. D. Darwin in England, and Geoffroy Saint-Hilaire (as shall immediately see) in France, came to the same conclusion. The origin of species, the years 1804-5

not made for the sake of this, but the two the result of accident. And in the manner of the three parts which here appears to exist in the position to the end. Wherever or therefore, if the same thing (that is, if the part of the whole) happened like as if they were made for the sake of something, the same were preserved, has a good proportion to the constitution of an eternal position, and whatsoever things are not here constituted, perished, and still remain. We here see the principle of natural selection, and the fact, but how little we tell of the comprehension of the principle also by his remarks the formation of the teeth.

the origin of all things Geoffroy seems to have relied chiefly on the conditions of life or the *monde ambiant* as the cause of change. He was cautious in drawing conclusion and did not believe that existing species are now undergoing modification and as his son adds *C'est donc un problème à réserver entièrement à l'avenir supposé même que l'avenir donne avoir prise sur lui*

In 1813 Dr W. C. Wells read before the Royal Society an account of a white female part of whose skin resembles that of a Negro but his paper was not published until his famous *Two Essays upon a Dew and Single Line* appeared in 1818. In this paper he distinctly recognises the principle of natural selection and this is the first recognition in which has been indicated but he applies it only to the races of man and to certain characters alone. After remarking that Negroes and mulattoes enjoy an immunity from certain tropical diseases he observes firstly that all animals tend to vary in some degree and secondly that agriculturists improve their domesticated animals by selection and then he adds but what is done in this latter case by art seems to be done with equal efficacy though more slowly by nature in the formation of varieties of man kind fitted for the country which they inhabit. Of the accidental varieties of man which would occur among the first few and scattered inhabitants of the middle regions of Africa some one would be better fitted than the others to bear the hardships of the country. This race would consequently multiply while the others would decrease not only from their inability to sustain the attacks of disease but from their incapacity of contending with their more vigorous neighbors. The colour of this vigorous race I take for granted from what has been already said would be dark. But the same disposition to form varieties still existing a darker and a darker race would in the course of time occur and as the darkest would be the best fitted for the climate it is would at length become the most prevalent if not the only race in the particular country in which it has originated. He then extends these same views to the white inhabitants of colder climates. I am indebted to Mr Rowley of the United States for having called my attention to this. Mr Brace to the above passage in Dr W. W. work.

The Hon. and Rev. W. Herbert afterwards Dean of Manchester in the fourth volume of the *Horticultural Transactions* 1872 and in his work on the *Ima gliduceæ* (1867 pp. 13-339)

declares that horticultural experiments have established beyond the possibility of refutation that botanical species are only a higher and more permanent class of varieties. His extension is the same view to

ed chiefly by
nation all our

In 1866 Professor Grant in the concluding paragraph in his well known paper (*The Edinburgh Philophical Journal* vol. 7)

published in the *Lancet* in 1834

In 1831 Mr Patrick Matthew published his work on *Natal Timber and Horticulture* in which he gives precisely the same view on the origin of species as that previously alluded to (proposed) by Mr Wallace and myself in the *Linnean Journal* and as that enlarged in the present volume. Unfortunately the view was given by Mr Matthew very briefly in scattered passages in an appendix to a work on a different subject so that it remained unnoticed until Mr Matthew himself drew attention to it in the *Ca de la Chouche* on April 7th 1860. The first

law of propagation it succeeds in period and therefore stock and it gives an alternative that new forms may be generated with out the presence of any mould or germ of former aggregates. I am not sure that I understand some passages but it seems that he attributes much influence to the habitations of the conditions of life. He clearly says however the full force of the principle of

ies (1856 p. 147) clearly expresses his chief that varieties slowly become changed into permanent species which are no longer capable of interbreeding.

Rafinesque in his *New Flora of North America* published in 1836 (p. 6) also follows — All plants might have been varieties once and many varieties are gradually becoming species by assuming a constant and peculiar character. But further on (p. 18) he adds except the original types or ancestors of the genus.

this it appears (*ibid* vol iii p 798) is inaccurate and without evidence I also gave some extracts from a correspondence between Professor Owen and the Editor of the *London Review* from which it appeared manifest to the Editor as well as to myself that Professor Owen claimed to have promulgated the theory of natural selection before I had done so and I expressed my surprise and satisfaction at this announcement but as far as it is possible to understand certain recently published passages (*ibid* vol iii p 798) I have either partially or wholly again fallen into error It is consolatory to me that others find Professor Owen's controversial writings as difficult to understand and to reconcile with each other as I do As far as the mere enunciation of the principle of natural selection is concerned it is quite immaterial whether or not Professor Owen preceded me for both of us as shown in this historical sketch were long ago preceded by Dr Wells and Mr Matthew

M Isidore Geoffroy Saint Hilaire in his lectures delivered in 1840 (of which a resume appeared in the *Revue et Mag de zoolog* Jan 1851) briefly gives his reason for believing that specific characters *sont fixés pour chaque espèce tant qu'elle se perpétue au milieu des mêmes circonstances ils se modifient si les circonstances ambiantes tiennent à changer* En résumé l'observation des animaux sauvages démontre déjà la variabilité limitée des espèces Les expériences sur les animaux sauvages devenus domestiques et sur les animaux domestiques redevenus sauvages la démontrent plus clairement encore Ces mêmes expériences prouvent de plus que les différences produites peuvent être de valeur générique In his *Histoire naturelle générale* (tom ii p 430 1849) he amplifies analogous conclusions

From a circular lately issued it appears that Dr Freke in 1841 (*Dublin Medical Press* p 379) propounded the doctrine that all organic beings have descended from one primordial form His grounds of belief and treatment of the subject are wholly different from mine but as Dr Freke has now (1861) published his essay

on domestic productions from the changes which the embryos of many species undergo from the difficulty of distinguishing species and varieties and from the principle of general gradation that species have been modified and he attributes the modification to the change of circumstances The author (1851) has also treated Psychology on the principle of the necessary acquirement of each mental power and capacity by gradation

In 1852 M Naudin a distinguished botanist expressly stated in an admirable paper on the Origin of Species (*Revue horticole* p 102 since partly republished in the *Nouvelles Archives du Muséum* tom i p 171) his belief that species are formed in an analogous manner as varieties are under cultivation and the latter process he attributes to man's power of selection But he does not show how selection acts under nature He believes like Dean Herbert that species when nascent were more plastic than at present He lays weight on what he calls the principle of finality *puissance mystérieuse qui termine fatalement pour les uns pour les autres l'acte providentiel dont l'action incessante sur les très vivants détermine à toutes les époques de l'existence du monde la forme le volume et la durée de chacun d'eux en raison de sa destinée dans l'ordre de choses dont il fait partie C'est cette puissance qui harmonise chaque membre à l'ensemble en l'appropriant à la fonction qu'il doit remplir dans l'organisme général de la nature fonction qui est pour lui sa raison d'être* ¹

In 1853 a celebrated geologist Count Keyserling (*Bulletin de la société géologique* 2nd ser tom x p 17) suggested that as new species appear to have been caused by some mass has have arisen and spread over the world at certain periods the germs of existing species may have been chemically affected by circumambient molecules of a particular

Mr Herbert Spencer in an essay (originally

development of organic beings with remarkable skill and force He argues from the analogy of lo-

nature, and thus have given rise to new forms.

In the same year 1803 Dr Schaffhausen published an excellent pamphlet (*Ueber die Natur der Arten der Pflanz- und Thierwelt*) in which he maintains the distinctness of organic forms. The author informs that many species have kept true for long periods, where as a few have become modified. The distinction of species he explains by the destruction of intermediate graduated forms. The striking plants and animals are separated from the extinct by new creations, but are to be regarded as the descendants through continued reproduction.

A well known French botanist, M. Lecoq, writes in 1804 (*Eléments de géophytologie*, t. I., p. 20) *On voit que nous voyons les fruits la variété de l'espèce, nous ne pouvons pas dire qu'ils émanent par deux hommes jugement différent*. Goffé's *Philosophie de la Nature*. Some of the passages scattered through M. Lecoq largely make it a little doubtful how far he tends towards the modification of species.

The Philosophy of Creation has been treated in many manners by the Rev. Bad P. H. in his *Essai sur l'Unité de l'Univers* 1855. Nothing can be more striking than the manner in which he has treated the introduction of new species as regular not a casual phenomenon, as Sir John Herschel expresses it, a natural concomitant to a miraculous process.

The third volume of the *Journal of the Linnæan Society* contains papers, read July 11 1858, by Mr Wallace and myself in which as stated in the introductory remarks to this volume, the theory of Natural Selection is prominently set forth by Mr Wallace with admirable force and clearness.

Wallace towards his mind would give the

same profound respect, expressed about the year 1859 (see Prof Rudolph Wagner *Zoologische und physiologische Untersuchungen*, 1861).

It is conclusively grounded on the laws of geographical distribution that forms now perfectly distinct have descended from a common parent form.

In June, 1859 Prof. Huxley gave a lecture before the Royal Institution on the *Elementary Types of Animal Life*. Referring to such cases, he remarks, "It is difficult to comprehend the meaning of such facts as the existence of species that each species of animal and plant, or each great type of organization, was formed and placed upon the surface of the earth."

It is no relation as to the proposed to the general analogy of nature. If on the other hand we view Prof. Huxley's elementary types in relation to that hypothesis which supposes the specific divergence to be the result of the gradual

change, which physiology admits any countenance.

In December 1859 Dr Hooker published his *Introduction to the Philosophy of Flore*. In the first part of this great work he admits the truth of the descent and modification of species, and supports the doctrine by many general considerations.

The first edition of this work was published on November 24th 1859 and the second edition in January the 1860.

INTRODUCTION

WHEN on board HMS *Peagle* as naturalist I was much struck with certain facts in the distribution of the organic beings inhabiting South America and in the geological relations of the present to the past inhabitants of that continent. These facts as will be seen in the latter chapters of this volume seemed to throw some light on the origin of species—that mystery of mysteries as it has been called by one of our greatest philosophers. On my return home it occurred to me in 1837 that something might perhaps be made out on this question by patiently accumulating and reflecting on all sorts of facts which could possibly have any bearing on it. After five years work I allowed myself to speculate on the subject and I drew up some short notes. These I enlarged in 1844 into a sketch of the conclusions which then seemed to me probable from that period to the present day I have steadily pursued the same object. I hope that I may be excused for entering on these personal details as I give them to show that I have not been hasty in coming to a decision.

My work is now (1859) nearly finished but as it will take me many more years to complete it and as my health is far from strong I have been urged to publish this abstract. I have more especially been induced to do this as Mr Wallace who is now studying the natural history of the Malay Archipelago has arrived at almost exactly the same general conclusions that I have on the origin of species. In 1858 he sent me a memoir on this subject with a request that I would forward it to Sir Charles Lyell who sent it to the Linnean Society and it is published in the third volume of the *Journal* of that society. Sir C. Lyell and Dr Hooker who both knew of my work—the latter having read my sketch of 1844—honoured me by thinking it advisable to publish with Mr Wallace's excellent memoir some brief extracts from my manuscripts.

This abstract which I now publish must necessarily be imperfect. I cannot here give references and authorities for my several statements and I must trust to the reader *reposing* some confidence in my accuracy. No doubt errors will have crept in though I hope I have always been cautious in trusting to good authorities alone. I can here give only the general conclusions at which I have arrived with a few

facts in illustration but which I hope in most cases will suffice. No one can feel more sensible than I do of the necessity of hereafter publishing in detail all the facts with reference on which my conclusions have been grounded and I hope in a future work to do this. I am well aware that scarcely a single point is discussed in this volume on which facts cannot be adduced often apparently leading to conclusions directly opposite to those at which I have arrived. A fair result can be obtained only by fully stating and balancing the facts and arguments on both sides of each question and this is here impossible.

I much regret that want of space prevents my having the satisfaction of acknowledging the generous assistance which I have received from very many naturalists some of them personally unknown to me. I cannot however let this opportunity pass without expressing my deep obligations to Dr Hooker who for the last fifteen years has aided me in every possible way by his large stores of knowledge and his excellent judgment.

In considering the Origin of Species it is quite conceivable that a naturalist reflecting on the mutual affinities of organic beings on their embryological relations their geographical distribution geological succession and other such facts might come to the conclusion that species had not been independently created but had descended like varieties from other species. Nevertheless such a conclusion

is not sufficient to overthrow the former. It is not sufficient to show that a species has been modified by external conditions such as climate food &c. as the only possible cause of variation. In one limited sense as we shall hereafter see this may be true but it is preposterous to attribute to mere external conditions the structure for instance of the woodpecker with its feet tail beak and tongue so admirably adapted to catch insects under the bark of trees. In the case of the mistletoe which draws its nourishment from certain trees which has seeds that must be transported by certain birds and which has flowers with separate sexes absolutely requiring the agency of certain insects to

bring pollen from one flower to the other it is equally preposterous to account for the structure of this parasite with its relations to several distinct organs being, by the effects of external conditions, of habit, or of the position of the plant itself.

It is, therefore, of the highest importance to gain clear insight into the means of modification and coadaptation. At the commencement of my observations it seemed to me probable that careful study of domesticated animals and of cultivated plants would offer the best chance of making out this obscure problem. Nor have I been disappointed in this and in all other perplexing cases I have invariably found that our knowledge, imperfect though it is of animals and domestication, afforded the best and safest clue. My venture to express my conclusions of the highest of such theories, although they have been very commonly rejected by naturalists.

From these conclusions, I shall deduce the first chapter of this Abstract Variations

Extinction of the less improved forms of life, and leads to what I have called Divergence of Character. In the next chapter I shall discuss the common and little known laws of variation.

a simple organ can be changed and perfected into a highly developed being or into an elaborate constructed organ secondly the ub-

connected the geological succession of organic beings through time in the twelfth and thirteenth, their geographical distribution through out space in the fourteenth, their classification in mutual affinities, both when mature

No one could feel surprised that much remains as yet unexplained in regard to the origin of species and varieties, if he make due allowance for our profound ignorance in regard to the mutual relations of the many beings which lie around us. We can explain why one species runs wild and is numerous, and why another allied species has a narrow range and is rare. Yet these relations are of the highest importance for the determination of the present welfare and, as I believe, the future success and modification of every inhabitant of this world. Still less do we know of the mutual relations of the innumerable inhabitants of the world during the many past geological epochs in its history. Although much remains obscure and will long remain obscure I can entertain no doubt, after the most deliberate study and dispassionate judgment of which I am capable that the view which most naturalists until recently retained, and which I firmly retained—namely that each species has been independently created—is erroneous. I am fully convinced that species are not immutable but that those belonging to what are called the same genera are lineal descendants of some other and generally extinct species, in the same manner as the acknowledged varieties of many species are the descendants of that species. Furthermore I am convinced that Natural Selection has been the most important, but not the exclusive, means of modification.

portant, we shall see how great is the power of man in accumulating his selective success. In the next chapter I will then pass on to the variability of species in that of nature but I will, unfortunately, be compelled to treat this subject far too briefly as it can be treated properly only by giving a catalogue of facts. We will, however, be enabled to discuss local circumstances are most favorable to variation. In the next chapter I shall for existence amongst the organic beings throughout the world, which is tabulated from the highest geometrical ratio of their increase. The second red. This is the doctrine of Malthus applied to the whole animal and vegetable kingdoms. As man in the individuals of each species are born than can possibly survive, and as, consequently, there is frequent recurrence of struggle for existence, it follows that any being, if it is not slightly in any manner profitable to itself and the community and sometimes even conditions of life, will be better chance of survival, and thus be not only elected from the two principles of inheritance any selected variety will tend to propagate its new and modified form.

This famous tale of the Natural Selection will be treated somewhat in the fourth chapter and shall then see how the natural selection almost invariably causes in the

CHAPTER I

VARIATION UNDER DOMESTICATION

Causes of Variability

When we compare the individuals of the same variety or hybrid of our old cultivated plants and animals, one of the first points which strikes us is that they generally differ more from each other than do the individuals of any one species or variety in state of nature. And if we reflect on the vast diversity of the plants and animals which have been cultivated, and which have varied during all times and the most different climates and treatment, we are driven to conclude that this great variability is due to our domestic productions having been raised under conditions of life so uniform as, and some what different from, those to which the parent species had been exposed in nature. There is, also, some probability in the view propounded by Andrew Knight, that the variability may be partly connected with the excess of food. It seems clear that organic beings must be exposed during several generations to new conditions to cause an great amount of variation and that, when the organism has once begun to arrive at all conditions arising for many generations, the case on record of variability or gametocytism arising and cultivation. Of the oldest cultivated plants, I know of till well new varieties. Most domesticated animals are still full of rapid improvement or deterioration.

As far as I am able to judge after long experience of the great conditions of life appear to act in two directions—on the one hand, variation on or on the other in part by direct breeding affecting the reproductive system. With respect to the direct action we must bear in mind that in many cases as I Professor Wismann has lately insisted, and as I have incidentally shown in my work on *Artificial Domestication*, there are two factors namely: the nature of the organism, and the nature of the conditions. The former seems to be much the more important for nearly similar variations occur many times arise under the same conditions and, on the other hand, dissimilar variations arise under conditions which appear to be nearly uniform. The effects on the offspring are either

definite and fixed. They may be considered as definite when all or nearly all the offspring of individuals exposed to certain conditions during several generations are modified in the same manner.

Changes which are indefinite and fixed. They may be little doubt about many slight changes,—such as size from the amount of food, colour from the nature of the food, thickness of the skin and hair from climate, &c. Each of the endless variations which we see in the plumage of our fowls must have had some efficient cause and if the same cause were to act uniformly during long

series of generations, the insertion of a minute drop of poison by a gall-producing insect, how a singular modification might result in the case of plants from a chemical change in the nature of the sap.

I do not think variability is a much more common result of changed conditions than definite variability and has probably played a more important part in the formation of our domestic

occasional type in the offspring of the same litter and in seedlings from the same seed-capsule. At long intervals of time out of millions of individuals reared in the same country and fed with the same food, a vast number of true-breeds so strongly pronounced as to deserve to be called monstrosities arise, but in most cases cannot be separated by any distinct line from slight variations. All such changes of

indefinite effect of the conditions of life on each individual organism, in nearly the same manner as the light affects differently in an individual manner according to the structure of body, or constitution, causing coughs or colics,

such has ot in som country droop g ars true
and th w w l has been gg ted that etl s
the droop g d to dis se ftle m sel f
th ar from the l b be ld m m ch
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With respect to what I have called the indirect action of changed conditions namely through the reproductive system of being affected we may infer that variability is thus induced partly from the fact of this system being extremely sensitive to any change in the conditions and partly from the fact that

unnatural conditions (for instance rabbits and ferrets kept in hutches) showing that their reproductive organs are not easily affected so will some animals and plants withstand domestication or cultivation and vary very slightly—perhaps hardly more than in a state of nature

It is that all of sexual

act species and that which may be observed with plants and animals when reared under new or unnatural conditions. Many facts clearly show how eminently

is certainly an error for I have given in another work a long list of sporting plants as they are called by gardeners—that is of plants which have suddenly produced a single bud with a new and sometimes widely different character from that of the other buds on the same plant. These bud variations as they may be named can be propagated by grafts offsets &c. and sometimes by seed. They occur rarely under nature but are far from rare under cultivation.

As to tame an animal and few things more difficult than to get it to breed freely under confinement even when the male and female unite. How many animals there are which will not breed though kept in an almost free state in their native country! This is generally but erroneously attributed to vitiated instincts. Many cultivated plants display the utmost vigour and yet rarely or never seed! In some few cases it has been discovered that a very trifling change such as a little more or less water at some particular period of growth will determine whether or not a plant will produce seeds. I cannot here give the list of

as been known suddenly to assume a new character and as buds on distinct trees growing under different conditions have sometimes yielded nearly the same variety—for instance buds on peach trees producing nectarine and buds on common roses producing moss roses—we clearly see that the nature of the conditions is of subordinate importance in comparison with the nature of the organism in determining each particular form of variation—perhaps of not more importance than the nature of the spark by which a mass of combustible matter is ignited has in determining the nature of the flames.

Effects of Habit and of the Use or Disuse of Parts Correlated Variation Inheritance

Changed habits produce an inherited effect as in the period of the flowering of plants when transported from one climate to another. With animals the increase or disuse of part has had a more marked influence thus I find in the domestic duck that the bones of the wing weigh less and the bones of the leg more in proportion to the whole skeleton than do the same bones in the wild duck and in the

under confinement. I may mention that carnivorous animals even from the tropics breed in this country pretty freely under confinement with the exception of the plantigrades or bear family which seldom produce young whereas carnivorous birds with the rarest exceptions hardly ever lay fertile eggs. Many exotic plants have pollen utterly worthless in the same condition as in the most sterile hybrids. When on the one hand we see domesticated animals and plants though often weak and sickly breeding freely under confinement and when on the other hand we see in individuals though taken young from a state of nature perfectly tamed long lived and healthy (of which I could give numerous instances) yet having their reproductive system so seriously affected by unperceived causes as to fail to act we need not be surprised at this system when it does act under confinement acting irregularly and producing offspring somewhat unlike their parents. I may add that as some organisms breed freely under the most

to the udders in cows and goats in countries where they are habitually milked in comparison with the changes in other countries is probably another instance of the effects of use. Not one of our domestic animals can be named

in determining what characters are of genetic value all such variations being present in the original. When it is explained how genetic characters originate, it will be seen that we have no right to expect often to find a genetic amount of difference in our domesticated races.

In attempting to estimate the amount of structural difference between allied domestic races, we are soon involved in doubt, from not knowing whether they are descended from one or several parent species. The point if it could be proved, would be interesting for instance it could be shown that the greyhound, pointer, and the spaniel, and the bulldog, which all know propagation of kind true.

the case of an single species, then such facts would have great weight in making us doubt about the immutability of the many closely allied natural species. An instance of the manner of initial tingeing of quarters of the world. I do not know as we shall presently see that the whole amount of difference between these racial breeds of the dog has been produced since domestication. I believe that small part of the difference is due to their being descended from distinct species. In the case of strongly marked races of some other domesticated species, there is presumptive or strong evidence that all are descended from one wild stock.

It has often been assumed that man has chosen for domestication animals and plants having an extraordinary where it is tenfold to vary and like wise with the land and the climates. I do not doubt that these capacities have added largely to the amount of most of our domesticated productions but how could a man possibly know when he first tamed an animal, whether it could arrive in succeeding generations, and whether it would endure other climates. Has the littleness of the ass and goose or the small power of endurance of the rabbit by the remainder of cold by the common camel, prevented their domestication. I cannot doubt that if the animals and plants, equal in number to our domesticated productions, and belonging to equal diverse classes and countries, were taken from a list of nature and could be made to breed for an equal number of generations under domestication, they would be as numerous as the parent species of our existing domesticated productions have arrived.

In the case of most of our ancient domesticated animals and plants, it is not possible to come to any definite conclusion, whether they

are descended from one or several wild species. The argument mainly relied on by those who believe in the multiple origin of our domestic animals is, that we find in the most ancient times, on the monuments of Egypt, and in the lake-habitations of Switzerland, much diversity in the breeds and that some of these ancient breeds very closely resemble or are identical with the modern breeds.

It is to be supposed that the Swiss and the German cultivated several kinds of wheat and barley, the pea, the poppy for oil, and flax and they possessed several domesticated animals. They also carried on commerce with other nations. All this is clear, however, as Herodotus has remarked, that they had this agriculture progressed considerably in civilization and thus again implies a long continued previous period of less advanced civilization. During which the domesticated animals, kept by different tribes in different districts, might have varied and given rise to distinct races. Since the discovery of flint tools in the superficial formations of many parts of the world all geologists believe that barbarian man lived at an enormously remote period and I know that the present day tribes are hardly a tribe so barbarous, as not to have domesticated animals.

The origin of most of our domestic animals will probably remain vague but I may remark that, looking to the domestic species of the whole world, I have after a laborious collection of all known facts, come to the conclusion that several wild species of Canine have been tamed, and that their blood in some cases mingled together flows in the veins of our domestic breeds. In regard to sheep and goat I can form no decided opinion. From facts communicated to me by Mr. Blunt, on the habits, voice, constitution, and tract of the humped Indian cattle it is almost certain that they are descended from a different original stock from our European cattle and some competent judges believe that these latter have had two or three wild progenitors, — whether or not these deserve to be called species. The confusion, as well as that of the precise distinction between the humped and common cattle, may indeed, be looked upon as established by the admirable researches of Professor Ruttimann with respect to horses, from reasons which I cannot here give. I am

In many cases this could not be otherwise thus the inherited peculiarities in the horns of cattle could appear only in the offspring when nearly mature peculiarities in the silkworm are known to appear at the corresponding caterpillar or cocoon stage But hereditary diseases and some other facts make me believe that the rule has a wider extension and that,

I
 est importance in explaining the laws of embryology These remarks are of course confined to the first appearance of the peculiarity and not to the primary cause which may have acted on the ovules or on the male element in nearly the same manner as the increased length of the horns in the offspring from a short-horned cow by a long horned bull though appearing late in life is clearly due to the male element

Having alluded to the subject of reversion I may here refer to a statement often made by naturalists—namely that our domestic varieties when run wild gradually but invariably revert in character to their original stocks Hence it has been argued that no deductions can be drawn from domestic races to species in a state of nature I have in vain endeavoured to discover on what decisive facts the above statement has so often and so boldly been made There would be great difficulty in proving its truth we may safely conclude that very many of the most strongly marked domestic varieties could not possibly live in a wild state In many cases we do not know what the original stock was and so could not tell whether or not nearly perfect reversion had ensued It would be necessary in order to prevent the effects of intercrossing that only a single variety should have been turned loose in its new home Nevertheless as our varieties certainly do occasionally revert in some of their characters to ancestral forms it seems to me not improbable that if we could succeed in naturalizing or were to cultivate during many generations the several races for instance of the cabbage in very poor soil (in which case however some effect would have to be attributed to the definite action of the poor soil) that they would to a large extent or even wholly revert to the wild aboriginal stock Whether or not the experiment would succeed is not of great importance for our line of argument for by

the experiment itself the conditions of life are changed If it could be shown that our domestic varieties manifested a strong tendency to reversion—that is to lose their acquired character whilst kept under the same condition and whilst kept in a considerable body so that free intercrossing might check by blending together any slight deviations in their structure in such case I grant that we could deduce nothing from domestic varieties in regard to species But there is not a shadow of evidence in favour of this view to assert that we could not breed our cart and race-horses long and short horned cattle and poultry of various breeds and excellent vegetables, for an unlimited number of generations would be opposed to all experience

Character of Domestic Varieties difficult of distinguishing between Varieties and Species origin of Domestic Varieties from one or more Species

When we look to the hereditary varieties or races of our domestic animals and plants and compare them with closely allied species we generally perceive in each domestic race as already remarked less uniformity of character than in true species Domestic races often have a somewhat monstrous character by which I mean that although differing from each other and from other species of the same genus in several trifling respects they often differ in an extreme degree in some one part, both when compared one with another and more especially when compared with the species under nature to which they are nearest allied With these exceptions (and with that of the perfect fertility of varieties when crossed—a subject hereafter to be discussed)—domestic races of the same species differ from each other in the same manner as do the closely allied species of the same genus in a state of nature but the differences in most cases are less in degree This must be a little as true for the domestic races of many animals and plants have been ranked by some competent judges as the descendants of aboriginally distinct species and by other competent judges as mere varieties If any well marked distinction existed between a domestic race and a species this source of doubt could not so perpetually recur It has often been stated that domestic races do not differ from each other in character of generic value It can be shown that this statement is not correct but naturalists differ much

beak, with line of reversed feathers down the breast and the habit of continually expanding until the upper part of the oesophagus. The Jacobin has the feathers so much reversed along the back of the neck that they form hood and the proportionally to its size elongated wing and tail feathers. The temperance and the glaucous as their names express, but a very different roof from the other breeds. The fantail has thirty or even forty tail-feathers, instead of twelve or fourteen—the normal umbel in all the members of the great pigeon family these feathers are kept expanded, and are carried so erect, that in most birds the head and tail touch. The oil gland is quite wanting. Several the less distinct breeds might be specified.

In the skeleton of the several breeds, the development of the bones of the face in length and breadth and curvature differs enormously. The shape as well as the breadth and length of the ramus of the lower jaw varies in highly remarkable manner. The caudal and sacral vertebrae vary in umbel as does the number of the ribs, together with their relative breadth and the presence of processes. The size and shape of the pterures in the sternum are highly variable so is the degree of divergence and relative size of the two arms of the furcula. The proportional width of the gape of mouth, the proportional length of the culmen, of the orifice of the nostrils, of the gape (of course in strict correlation with the length of beak) the size of the crop and of the upper part of the oesophagus the development and position of the oil-gland the umbel of the primary wing and caudal feathers the relative length of the wing and tail to each other and to the body the relative length of the leg and foot the number of scutellæ on the toes, the development of the claws, the toes, are all points of structure which are variable. The period at which the perfect plumage is acquired varies, as does the state of the down with which the nestling birds are clothed when hatched. The shape and size of the eggs vary. The manner of sitting, and in some breeds the voice and disposition, are remarkable. Lastly in certain breeds, the males and females have come to

highly borne the short-faced tumbler the runt, the barb, the pouter and fantail in the same genus more especially as in each of these breeds several true and distinct sub-breeds, or species, as they would call them, could be shown.

Great as are the differences between the breeds of the pigeon I am fully convinced that the common opinion of naturalists is correct, namely that all are descended from the rock pigeon (*Columba livia*) including and thus forming several geographical races or sub-species, which differ from each other in the most trifling respects. As several of the reasons which have led me to this belief are in some degree applicable in other cases, I will here briefly give them. If the several breeds are distinct entities, and have not proceeded from the rock pigeon, they must have descended from at least seven or eight aboriginal stocks for it is impossible to make the present domestic breeds by the crossing of an lesser number. How for instance, could a pouter be produced by crossing two breeds unless one of the parent stocks possessed the characteristic enormous crop. The supposed hominal stocks must all have been rock pigeons, that is, they did not breed or willingly perch on trees. But besides *C. livia*, with its geographical sub-species, only two or three the species of rock pigeons are known and these have not any of the characters of the domestic breeds. Hence the supposed hominal stocks must still exist in the countries where they were originally domesticated, and the unknown ornithologists and thus, considering their size habits, and remarkable characters, seems improbable or they must have become extinct in the wild state. But birds breeding in precipices, and good fliers, are unlikely to be exterminated and the common rock-pigeon, which has the same habits with the domestic breeds, has not been exterminated on several of the smaller British islets, or on the shores of the Mediterranean. If now the supposed extermination of so many species having similar habits with the rock pigeon seems a very rash assumption. More than several also named domesticated breeds have been transported to all parts of the world, and therefore some of them must have been carried back again into the native country but not one has become wild or feral, though the domestic pigeon, which is the rock pigeon in a very slightly altered state has become feral in several places. Again, all recent experience shows that it is difficult to get wild animals to breed freely under domestication.

doubtfully inclined to believe

of the fowl alive having bred and crossed them and examined their skeletons it appears to me almost certain that all are the descendants of the wild Indian fowl *Callus bankna* and this is the common

is of which differ much from each other the evidence is clear that they are all descended from the common wild duck and rabbit

The doctrine of the origin of our several domestic races from several aboriginal stocks has been carried to an absurd extreme by some authors. They believe that every race which breeds true let the distinctive characters be ever so slight has had its wild prototype. At

it formerly existed eleven wild species of sheep peculiar to Great Britain. When we bear in mind that Britain has now not one peculiar mammal and I fancy but few distinct from those of Germany and so with Hungary Spain &c. but that each of the kingdoms possesses several peculiar breeds of cattle sheep &c. we must admit that many domestic breeds must have originated in Europe for whence otherwise could they have been derived? So it is in India. Even in the case of the breeds of the domestic dog throughout the world which I admit are lessened from several wild species it cannot be doubted that there has been an immense amount of individual variation for who will believe that animals closely resembling the Italian greyhound the bloodhound the bulldog pug dog or Blenheim spaniel &c. — so unlike all wild Canids — ever existed in a state of nature? It has often been loosely said that all our races of dogs have been produced by the crossing of a few aboriginal species but by crossing we can only get forms in some degree intermediate between their parents and if we account for our several domestic races by this process we must admit the former existence of the most extreme forms as the Italian greyhound bloodhound bulldog &c. in the wild state. Moreover the possibility of making distinct races by crossing has been greatly exaggerated. Many cases are on record showing that a race may be modified

by occasional crosses if aided by the careful selection of the individuals which present the desired character but to obtain a race intermediate between two quite distinct races would be very difficult. Sir J. Sebright expressly experimented with this object and failed. The offspring from the first cross between two pure breeds is tolerably and sometimes (as I have found with pigeons) quite uniform in character and everything seems simple enough but when the mongrels are crossed one with another for several generations hardly two of them are alike and then the difficulty of the task becomes manifest.

Breeds of the Domestic Pigeon their Differences and Origin

Believing that it is always best to study some special group I have after deliberation taken up domestic pigeons. I have kept every breed which I could purchase or obtain and have been most kindly favoured with skins from several quarters of the world more especially by the Hon W. Elliot from India and by the Hon C. Murray from Persia. Many treatises in different languages have been published on pigeons and some of them are very important as being of considerable antiquity. I have associated with several eminent fanciers and have been permitted to join two of the London Pigeon Clubs. The diversity of the breed is something astonishing. Compare the English carrier and the short-faced tumbler and see the wonderful difference in their beaks entailing corresponding difference in their skulls. The carrier more especially the male bird is almost remarkable from the wonderful development of the carunculated skin about the head and this is accompanied by greatly elongated eyelids very large external nostrils to the nostril and a wide gape of mouth. The short-faced tumbler has a

size with long narrow beak and large feet some of the subbreeds of recent have very long necks others very long wings and tails others singularly short tailed but all are allied to the carrier but instead of a long beak has a very short and broad one. The pouter has a much elongated body long legs and feet and enormous flat feet which excite a torment and even laughter. The turtledove has a short and conical

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vet on the hypothesis of the multiple origin of our pigeons it must be assumed that at least seven or eight species were so thoroughly domesticated in ancient times by half-civilised man as to be quite prolific under confinement.

An argument of great weight and applicable in several other cases is that the above specified breeds though agreeing generally with the wild rock pigeon in constitution habits voice colouring and in most parts of their structure yet are certainly highly abnormal in other parts we may look in vain through the whole great family of Columbidae for a beak like that of the English carrier or that of the short faced tumbler or barb for reversed feathers like those of the Jacobin for a crop like that of the pouter for tail feathers like those of the fantail Hence it must be assumed not only that half-civilised man succeeded in thoroughly domesticating several species but that he intentionally or by chance picked out extraordinarily abnormal species and further that these very species have since all become extinct or unknown So many strange contingencies are improbable in the highest degree.

Some facts in regard to the colouring of pigeons well deserve consideration The rock pigeon of a slaty blue with white loins but the Indian sub species *C. intermedia* of Strickland has thus part bluish The tail has a terminal dark bar with the outer feathers externally edged at the base with white The wings have two black bars Some semi-domestic breeds and some truly wild breeds have besides the two black bars the wings chequered with black These several marks do not occur together in any other species of the whole family Now in every one of the domestic breeds taking thoroughly well bred birds all the above marks even to the white edging of the outer tail feathers, sometimes concur perfectly developed Moreover when birds belonging to two or more distinct breeds are crossed none of which are blue or have any of the above specified marks the mongrel offspring are very apt suddenly to acquire these characters To give one instance out of several which I have observed—I crossed some white fantails which breed very true with some black barbs—and it so happens that blue varieties of barbs are so rare that I never heard of an instance in England and the mongrels were black brown and mottled I also crossed a barb with a spot, which is a white bird with a red tail and red spot on the forehead and which notoriously breeds very true the mon-

grels were dusky and mottled I then crossed one of the mongrel barb fantails with a mongrel barb pot, and they produced a bird of as beautiful a blue colour with the white loins, double black wing bar and barred and white edged tail feathers as any wild rock pigeon! We can understand these facts on the well known principle of reversion to ancestral characters if all the domestic breeds are descended from the rock pigeon But if we deny this we must make one of the two following highly improbable suppositions Either first that all the several imagined aboriginal stocks were coloured and marked like the rock pigeon although no other existing species is thus coloured and marked so that in each separate breed there might be a tendency to revert to the very same colours and markings Or secondly that each breed even the purest, has within a dozen or at most within a score of generations been crossed by the rock pigeon I say within a dozen or twenty generations for no instance is known of crossed descendants reverting to an ancestor of foreign blood removed by a greater number of generations In a breed which has been crossed only once the tendency to revert to any character derived from such a cross will naturally become less and less as in each succeeding generation there will be less of the foreign blood but when there has been no cross and there is a tendency in the breed to revert to a character which was lost during some former generation this tendency for all that we can see to the contrary may be transmitted undiminished for an indefinite number of generations These two distinct cases of reversion are often confounded together by those who have written on inheritance.

Lastly the hybrid or mongrels from between all the breeds of the pigeon are perfectly fertile as I can state from my own observations purposely made on the most distinct breed.

Domestication eliminates this strong tendency to sterility in species From the history of the dog and of some other domestic animals, this conclusion is probably quite correct if applied to species closely related to each other But to

From these several reasons, namely—the improbability of man having firmly established supposed species of pigeons to

courtly historians. His Majesty by erecting the breeds which he thought were peculiar to his empire has improved them astonishingly. About this same period the Dutch were so eager about pigeons as were the old Romans. The paramount importance of these associations explains the immense amount of variation which pigeons have undergone will like to be observed with great interest of Selection. We shall then see how it is that the several breeds of fowls have somewhat monstrous characters. It is also a most favourable circumstance for the production of distinct breeds, that male and female pigeons can be easily mated for life and thus different breeds can be kept together in the same variety.

I have discussed the probable origin of domestic pigeons at some quite sufficient

feral—these species present great variety of rural characters, as compared with all the Columbidæ the glaucous like the rock pigeon most respects—the colour and various appearance of the blue colour and various black males. All the breeds both when kept in pairs or singly—and lastly the mongrel offspring being perfectly fertile—form these several reasons taken together we may safely conclude that all domestic breeds

that were introduced into Europe and India and that have been introduced into the number of pigeons is in fact with all domestic breeds. Secondly that, although an English carrier a bird faced tumblers and many other characters of the rock pigeon, yet that, by comparing the several breeds with the several races, more especially those brought from distant countries and in which the pigeon and the rock pigeon, have the perfect resemblance can in some other cases be traced to the breeds. Thirdly those characters which are mainly distinct of each breed are each mutually variable of fancied with all and length of beak of the carrier the shortness of that of the tumbler and the number of feathers in the tail and the plan of the tail of this fact will be obvious when we take of Selection. Fourthly pigeons are being watched and tended with utmost care and directed by many people. They have been domesticated for thousands of years in several quarters of the world the earliest known record of pigeons is in the fifth Egyptian dynasty about 3000 B.C. as we are told by Professor Lepsius in the Middle Ages from the time pigeons are given a bill for the previous dynasty in the time of the Romans, as

cated they had proceeded from a common parent, as any naturalist could in coming to a similar conclusion from the many species of fowls and other groups of birds, in nature. On circumstance has struck me much namely that nearly all the breeders of the various domestic animal and the cultivated plants with which we have conversed, or whose tastes I have discussed are firmly convinced that the several breeds to which each has attended are descended from many originally distinct species. Ask, as I have asked a celebrated raiser of fowls and tell him the husbandry of the tumbler and the carrier both from a common parent stock and will I glory to scorn I have a tumbler pigeon or poultry rascal, but if he is who was not fully convinced that he himself was descended from a distinct species Van Mons, in his treatise on pears and apples has written he believed that the several sorts for instance Ribston pippin and Codlin apple could have proceeded from the seed of the same tree. In many of the examples could be given. The explanation I think is ample for the continued steady progress

Khan in India, about the year 1600 not less than 20,000 pigeons were taken with the court. The monarch of Iran and Turan sent him some very rare birds and continued the

progress of the pigeon breeding. I argue that and refuse to admit the possibility of slight differences accumulated during many generations. May not those naturalists who, knowing

vet on the hypothesis of the multiple origin of our pigeons it must be assumed that at least seven or eight species were so thoroughly domesticated in ancient times by half civilised man as to be quite prolific under confinement.

An argument of great weight and applicable in several other cases is that the above specified breeds though agreeing generally with the wild rock pigeon in constitution habits voice colouring and in most parts of their structure yet are certainly highly abnormal in other parts we may look in vain through the whole great family of Columbidae for a beak like that of the English carrier or that of the short faced tumbler or barb for reversed feathers like those of the Jacobin for a crop like that of the pouter for tail feathers like those of the fantail Hence it must be assumed not only that half-civilised man succeeded in thoroughly domesticating several species but that he intentionally or by chance picked out extraordinarily abnormal species and further that these very species have since all become extinct or unknown So many strange contingencies are improbable in the highest degree.

Some facts in regard to the colouring of pigeons well deserve consideration The rock pigeon of a slaty blue with white loins but the Indian sub species *C. intermedia* of Strickland has this part bluish The tail has a terminal dark bar with the outer feathers externally edged at the base with white The wings have two black bars Some semi domestic breed and some truly wild breeds have besides the two black bars, the wings chequered with black These several marks do not occur together in any other species of the whole family Now in every one of the domestic breeds taking thoroughly well bred birds all the above marks even to the white edging of the outer tail feathers, sometimes concur perfectly developed Moreover when birds belonging to two or more distinct breeds are crossed none of which are blue or have any of the above specified marks the mongrel offspring are very apt suddenly to acquire these characters To give one instance out of several which I have observed—I crossed some white fantails which breed very true with some black barbs—and it so happens that blue varieties of barbs are so rare that I never heard of an instance in England and the mongrels were black brown and mottled I also crossed a barb with a spot, which is a white bird with a red tail and red spot on the forehead and which notoriously breed very true the mon-

grels were dusky and mottled I then crossed one of the mongrel barb fantails with a mongrel barb spot, and they produced a bird of as beautiful a blue colour with the white loins, double black wing bar and barred and white edged tail feathers, as any wild rock pigeon! We can understand these facts on the well known principle of reversion to ancestral characters if all the domestic breeds are descended from the rock pigeon But if we deny this we must make one of the two following highly improbable suppositions Either first that all the several imagined aboriginal stocks were coloured and marked like the rock pigeon although no other existing species is thus coloured and marked so that in each separate breed there might be a tendency to revert to the very same colours and markings Or secondly that each breed even the purest, has within a dozen or at most within a score of generations been crossed by the rock pigeon I say within a dozen or twenty generations for no instance is known of crossed descendants reverting to an ancestor of foreign blood removed by a greater number of generations In a breed which has been crossed only once the tendency to revert to any character derived from such a cross will naturally become less and less as in each succeeding generation there will be less of the foreign blood but when there has been no cross, and there is a tendency in the breed to revert to a character which was lost during some former generation this tendency for all that we can see to the contrary may be transmitted unimpaired for an indefinite number of generations These two distinct cases of reversion are often confounded together by those who have written on inheritance.

Lastly the hybrids or mongrels from between all the breeds of the pigeon are perfectly fertile as I can state from my own observation purposely made on the most distinct breeds.

Some authors believe that long-continued domestication eliminates this strong tendency to sterility in species From the history of the dog and of some other domestic animals, this conclusion is probably quite correct if applied to species closely related to each other But to

spring perfectly fertile *inter se* would be rash in the extreme

From these several reasons, namely—the improbability of man having formerly made seven or eight supposed species of pigeons to breed freely under domestication—these supposed species being quite unknown in a wild state and their not having become anywhere local—these species presenting certain very abnormal characters as compared with all other Columbidae though so like the rock-pigeon in most respects—the occasional reappearance of the blue colour and various black marks in all the breeds, both when kept pure and when crossed—and lastly the mongrel offspring being perfectly fertile—from these several reasons taken together we may safely conclude that all our domestic breeds are descended from the rock-pigeon or *Columba livia* with its geographical subspecies.

In favour of this view I may add, firstly, that the wild *C. livia* has been found capable of domestication in Europe and in India, and that it agrees in habits and in great number of points of structure with all the domestic breeds.

Secondly, that, although an English carrier or fant-tailed tumbler differs immensely in certain characters from the rock-pigeon, yet that, by comparing the several sub-breeds of these two races, more especially those brought from distant countries, we can make between them and the rock-pigeon, an almost perfect series, so we can in some other cases, but not with all the breeds. Thirdly, those characters which are mainly distinctive of each breed are in each eminently variable—for instance the width and length of beak of the carrier, the shortness of that of the tumbler and the number of tail-feathers in the fantail and the explanation of this fact will be obvious when we treat of Selection. Fourthly, pigeons have been watched and tended with the most care and loved by many people. They have been domesticated for thousands of years in several quarters of the world; the earliest known record of pigeons is in the fifth Egyptian dynasty about 5000 B.C., as was pointed out to me by Professor Lepsius but Mr Birch informs me that pigeons are given in bill of fare in the previous dynasty. In the time of the Romans, as we hear from Pliny immense prices were given for pigeons—"nay they are come to this pass, that they can reckon upon their pedigree and race. Pigeons were in the reign of Akber Khan in India, about the year 1600 N. less than 20,000 pigeons were taken within the court. The monarchs of Iran and Turan sent him some very rare birds and continues the

courtly historian, "His Majesty by crossing the breed, when method was never practised before, has improved them astonishingly." About this same period the Dutch were as eager about pigeons as were the old Romans. The paramount importance of these considerations in explaining the immense amount of variation which pigeons have undergone will likewise be obvious when we treat of Selection. We shall then, also, see how it is that the several breeds so often have a somewhat monstrous character. It is also a most favourable circumstance for the production of distinct breeds, that male and female pigeons can be easily mated for life, and thus different breeds can be kept together in the same aviary.

I have discussed the probable origin of domestic pigeons at some, yet quite insufficient, length, because when I first kept pigeons and watched the several kinds, with knowledge how truly they breed, I felt fully as much difficulty in believing that once they had been domesticated they had all proceeded from a common parent, as any naturalist could in coming to a similar conclusion in regard to the many species of finches, or other groups of birds, in nature. On circumstance has struck me much notably, that nearly all the breeders of the various domestic animals and the cultivators of plants, with whom I have conversed, or whose treatises I have read, are firmly convinced that the several breeds to which each has attended, are descended from so many aboriginally distinct species. Ask, as I have asked, a celebrated raiser of Hereford cattle what his cattle might not have descended from long horns, or both from a common parent-stock, and he will laugh you to scorn. I have never met a pigeon or poultry or duck or rabbit fancier who was not fully convinced that each main breed was descended from a distinct species. Van Mons, in his treatise on pears and apples, shows how utterly he disbelieves that the several sorts, for instance a Ribston pippin or Codlin-apple, could have proceeded from the seeds of the same tree. Innumerable other examples could be given. The explanation, I think, is simple from long-continued study they are strongly impressed with the differences between the several races and though they will know that each race varies slightly from the winning prizes by selecting such slight differences, yet they ignore all general arguments, and refuse to sum up their minds slight differences accumulated during many successive generations. May not those naturalists who, knowing

far less of the laws of inheritance than does the breeder and knowing no more than he does of the intermediate links in the long lines of descent yet admit that many of our domestic races are descended from the same parents—may they not learn a lesson of caution when they deride the idea of species in a state of nature being lineal descendants of other species?

*Principles of Selection
anciently followed and their Effects*

Let us now briefly consider the steps by which domestic races have been produced either from one or from several allied species. Some effect may be attributed to the direct and definite action of the external conditions of life and some to habit but he would be a bold man who would account by such agencies for the differences between a dray and race horse a greyhound and bloodhound a carrier and tumbler pigeon. One of the most remarkable features in our domesticated races is that we see in them adaptation not indeed to the animal's or plant's own good but to man's use or fancy. Some variations useful to him have probably arisen suddenly or by one step many botanists for instance believe that the fuller's teasel with its hooks which cannot be rivalled by any mechanical contrivance is only a variety of the wild *Dipsacus* and this amount of change may have suddenly arisen in a seedling. So it has probably been with the turnspit dog and this is known to have been the case with the ancon sheep. But when we compare the dray horse and race horse the dromedary and camel the various breeds of sheep fitted either for cultivated land or mountain pasture with the wool of one breed good for one purpose and that of another breed for another purpose when we compare the many breeds of dogs each good for man in different ways when we compare the game cock so pertinacious in battle with other breeds so little quarrelsome with everlasting layers which never desire to sit and with the bantam so small and elegant when we compare the host of agricultural culinary orchard and flower garden races of plants most useful to man at different seasons and for different purposes or so beautiful in his eyes we must I think look further than to mere variability. We cannot suppose that all the breeds were suddenly produced as perfect and as useful as we now see them indeed in many cases we know that this has not been their history. The key is man's power of accumulative selection

nature gives successive variations man adds them up in certain directions useful to him. In this sense he may be said to have made for himself useful breeds.

The great power of this principle of selection is not hypothetical. It is certain that several of our eminent breeders have even within a single lifetime modified to a large extent their breeds of cattle and sheep. In order fully to realise what they have done it is almost necessary to read several of the many treatises devoted to this subject and to inspect the

from highly competent authorities. Youatt who was probably better acquainted with the works of agriculturists than almost any other individual and who was himself a very good judge of animals speaks of the principle of selection as that which enables the agriculturist not only to modify the character of his flock but to change it altogether. It is the magician's wand by means of which he may summon into life whatever form and mould he pleases. Lord Somerville speaking of what breeders have done for sheep says—It would seem as if they had chalked out upon a wall a form perfect in itself and then had given it existence. In Saxony the importance of the principle of selection in regard to merino sheep is so fully recognised that men follow it as a trade the sheep are placed on a table and are studied like a picture by a connoisseur this is done three times at intervals of months and the sheep are each time marked and classed so that the very best may ultimately be selected for breeding.

What English breeders have actually effected is proved by the enormous prices given for animals with a good pedigree and these have been exported to almost every quarter of the world. The improvement is by no means generally due to crossing different breeds all the best breeders are strongly opposed to this practice except sometimes amongst closely allied sub-breeds. And when a cross has been made the closest selection is far more indispensable even than in ordinary cases. If selection consisted merely in separating some very distinct variety and breeding from it the principle would be so obvious as hardly to be worth notice but its importance consists in the great effect produced by the accumulation in one direction during successive generations.

of diff'rences absolutely in proportion by an unadvised eye — diff'rence which I find has almost attempted to perpetuate. Not one man in the said has acquired any of these and I doubt sufficiently to become an eminent breeder. If gifted with these qualities I should have subjected to the same process as the black cat, and many make great improvement in the quality of the cat, but he will assuredly lose the world's divisible in the natural capacity and I find practice requires to become a black pigeon fancier.

The same principles are followed by the culturists but the animals are often more abrupt — suppose that the cat

thus, the great variety of instances that daily increasing of the common gooseberry may be quoted. We see an interesting improvement in many of the flowers which the flowers of the present day are compared with during the last twenty thirty years ago. When a race of plants is created by the establishment, the seed as it does not produce the best plants, but the result of their seed beds, and the plants are, as

lyceum — I speak after careful observation — the case. The law of correlation in the importance of which should never be overlooked will now be some difference but, a general rule cannot be doubted that the continuation of light ratios of the floral or the fruit, will produce races differing from each other in the floral characters. It may be objected that the principles of selection has been reduced to methodical practice scarcely more than the quarter of a century. This can only be more than needed to the year of many years has been published in the subject and the results have been in a considerable degree rapid and important. But the very fact in truth that the principle is a modern conception of the old system is sufficient to show the high antiquity in which the importance of the principle is acknowledged. In rude and barbarous periods of English history the animal we often improved, and the wild was passed to produce the exportation of the destruction of the horse and the race was increased and thus may be compared to the ongoing of

passage. The great thing is that the color of domestic animals was at that early period attended to. Some of the times cross the wild with the domestic animals, to improve the breed, and the fact may be said, as is attested by passage in Pliny. The savage in South Africa met the draught cattle by color as did some of the Esquimaux the team of dogs. Linnæus states that good domestic breeds highly valued by the negroes in the interior of Africa which have not associated with European. Some of the selected domestic animals, but the high value that the breeding of domestic animals was carefully attended to in ancient times and now attended to by the lowest savages. It would indeed, have been a strange fact, had it not been that the breeding of the inferiority of good and bad qualities is so obvious.

Unconscious Selection

At the present time many breeders try by methodical selection, with distinct objects in view to make new strains of the breed useful to anything of the kind in the country.

of animals.

In regard to plants, there is an immense amount of observing the accumulated effects of selection — namely by comparing the descendants of the plants in the different varieties of the same species in the field and in the garden. The first of leaves, pods, flowers, what part is altered, in the kitchen garden, in comparison with the flowers of the same varieties and the density of fruit of the same species in the orchard, in comparison with the leaves and flowers of the same set of varieties. See how different the leaves of the cabbage are and how tremulous like the flowers of the white and the flowers of the heartsease are and how like the leaves of the white fruit of the different kinds of gooseberries differ in size, color, shape, and hairiness, and the flowers of the white light diff'rences. It is not that the varieties which differ largely in some points do not differ at all in the points this is hard

far less of the laws of inheritance than does the breeder and knowing no more than he does of the intermediate links in the long lines of descent yet admit that many of our domestic races are descended from the same parents—may they not learn a lesson of caution when they deride the idea of species in a state of nature being lineal descendants of other species?

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nature gives successive variations man adds them up in certain directions useful to him. In this sense he may be said to have made for himself useful breeds.

The great power of this principle of selection is not hypothetical. It is certain that several of our eminent breeders have even within a single lifetime modified to a large extent their breeds of cattle and sheep. In order fully to realise what they have done it is almost necessary to read several of the many treatises devoted to this subject and to inspect the animals. Breeders habitually peak of an animal's organisation as something plastic which they can model as they please. If I had space I could quote numerous passages to this effect from highly competent authorities. Youatt who was probably better acquainted with the works of agriculturists than almost any other individual and who was himself a very good judge of animals speaks of the principle of selection as that which enables the agriculturist not only to modify the character of his flock but to change it altogether. It is the magician's wand by means of which he may summon into life whatever form and mould he pleases. Lord Somerville speaking of what breeders have done for sheep says—It would seem as if they had chalked out upon a wall a form perfect in itself and then had given it existence. In Saxony the importance of the principle of selection in regard to merino sheep is so fully recognised that men follow it as a trade the sheep are placed on a table and are studied like a picture by a connoisseur this is done three times at intervals of months and the sheep are each time marked and classed so that the very best may ultimately be selected for breeding.

What English breeders have actually effected is proved by the enormous prices given for animals with a good pedigree and these have been exported to almost every quarter of the world. The improvement is by no means generally due to crossing different breeds all the best breeders are strongly opposed to this practice except sometimes amongst closely allied sub-breeds. And when a cross has been made the closest selection is far more indispensable even than in ordinary cases. If selection consisted merely in separating some very distinct variety and breeding from it the principle would be so obvious as hardly to be worth notice but its importance consists in the great effect produced by the accumulation in one direction during successive generations

at the wonderf l skill of gardeners, in ha ung produced such splendid results from such poo materials b t th art has been simple, and, as far as th final s l it is concerned has been f llo ed almost unconsc ly It has consisted in al y cultivating the be t known variet sowing ts seeds, and, wh n a l ghtly better vari ty chance d to ppear s. ecting t, and so onwards. B t the garden rs f th classical period wh ul ti ted th best pears huch they co ld p ocure, n r tho ght what sple did fruit w hould eat th ough w o our xcellent fruit in som small d gree to their having naturally chosen and p eserved the best aneties th y could anywh find.

A larg amount f change, thus slowly and unconsciously accumulated explains, as I be lie e, the well kn wn fact, that in a numbe of cases we cann t ecognise, and th refo d ot kn w th wild parent tocks f th pla ts which ha bec l gest cult ted in ou flow r and k tch n gard ns If t has tak n centuries th sand of y ars t mpro modify most f plants p to th ir present standard f eel lness t man we can unde stand how t i that n th lu tralia, the Cape f Good H pe any oth r gi n in hab ted by quit unci lised man, has aff rded us singl plant w rth cult It is n t that these countries, so rich in species, d n t by a strange chance possess th aboriginal tocks of any useful plants, b t that th nat plants ha not been impro ed by co tinned selection p to a tandard f perfect n comparable th that acq red b th plant in countries anciently ci lised

In regard to th d mesti animals k pt by unci lised man, t h uld n t be o looked that th y almost alw ys ha to trugl for their own food t l ast during certain seasons. And in tw countries rr diff ntly circum tanced, und d als f th sam species, ha ung slightly diff t constit ti ns tru t re would otf oceed bette th co try than in th th and thus by process of natural selecti n, as will h reaft be m re f lly xplained, tw sub-breeds m ght be f rm ed. This, pe haps, partly xplains why th aneties k pt by sa ges, as has been e marked by som th rs, ha m re f th character of tru species than th ari tes kept in ci lised countri s.

On th w h re gi f th mportant part which selecti by man has played t becomes t ce ob s, h w t is that ur domestic races show adaptation in thei structure

r in their hab ts to man s wants or fancies. W can, I think furth r understand th fre q ntly abn rmal characters of our d mestic races, and l k wise the r differences be g so gre t in e t rnal charact rs nd latively so l ght in i t rnal parts or or ans. Man can hardly select, o nly with n h difficulty any d t n of tract xcepting cl as is xternally sible and indeed he rarely cares for what is internal He can ne cr act by selecti n excepti g n variatio s which ar first gi en to him som sl ght d gree by n ture No man w ld er try t make a fanta l till h saw a p geo w th a tail de l ped in some l f t f gree in an unu l lmann r or pouter

u u u --
B t to use uch an expres n as try g to m k a fantail, is, I ha e no doubt, n most

--
p geon w ld become thro h long-continued partly unco sci s and partly m thodical, selecti n. Perhaps the parent-bird f all fantails had only f urteen tail feathers somewhat expanded, lik th present J va fantail, or lik indi duals of oth and dist ct breeds, in which as many as se enteen tail f athers ha e

u u u --
ci rs, as t is n t n f the points f the breed N l t t be tho ght that som great de ation f tru t re would be necessary to catch th fancier ey h perceives e tr m ly mall differences, and t is in h man nat t val e any n lty h w r slight, in own pos sessi n. N must th v l which wo ld for m y been set n any slight differences n th indi d ls f th same species, b y dged f by th alue which is n w set on them aft se ral breeds ha f rly been established. It is known that with p geons many l ght ariati ns n w occasi nally ppear b t these are rejected as f ults d ti ns from th tandard f perfection in each breed. The comm n goose has n t gi en rise to any marked ari tes hence th T louse and th comm n breed which diff e only in colour that most fleeting of character s, have lately been exhub ted as distinct at ur poultry shows.

But for our purpose a form of Selection which may be called Unconscious and which results from every one trying to possess and breed from the best individual animals is more important. Thus a man who intends keeping pointers naturally tries to get as good dogs as he can and afterwards breeds from his own best dogs but he has no wish or expectation of permanently altering the breed. Nevertheless we may infer that this process continued during centuries would improve and modify any breed in the same way as Bakewell Collins &c by this very same process only carried on more methodically did greatly modify even during their lifetimes the forms and qualities of their cattle. Slow and insensible changes of this kind can never be recognised unless actual measurements or careful drawings of the breeds in question have been made long ago which may serve for comparison. In some cases however unchanged or but little changed individuals of the same breed exist in less civilised districts where the breed has been less improved. There is reason to believe that King Charles's spaniel has been unconsciously modified to a large extent since the time of that monarch. Some highly competent authorities are convinced that the setter is directly derived from the spaniel and has probably been slowly altered from it. It is known that the English pointer has been greatly changed within the last century and in this case the change has it is believed been chiefly effected by crosses with the foxhound but what concerns us is that the change has been effected unconsciously and gradually and yet so effectually that though the old Spanish pointer certainly came from Spain Mr. Brown has not seen as I am informed by him any native dog in Spain like our pointer.

By a similar process of selection and by careful training English race horses have come to surpass in fleetness and size the parent Arabs so that the latter by the regulations for the Goodwood Races are favoured in the weights which they carry. Lord Spencer and others have shown how the cattle of England have increased in weight and in early maturity compared with the stock formerly kept in this country. By comparing the accounts given in various old treatises of the former and present state of carrier and tumbler pigeons in Britain India and Persia we can trace the stages through which they have insensibly passed and come to differ so greatly from the rock pigeon.

Youatt gives an excellent illustration of the effects of a course of selection which may be considered as unconscious in so far that the breeders could never have expected or even wished to produce the result which ensued—namely the production of two distinct strains. The two flocks of Leicester sheep kept by Mr. Buckley and Mr. Burgess as Mr. Youatt remarks have been purely bred from the original stock of Mr. Bakewell for upwards of fifty years. There is not a suspicion existing in the mind of any one at all acquainted with the subject that the owner of either of them has deviated in any one instance from the pure blood of Mr. Bakewell's flock and yet the difference between the sheep possessed by these two gentlemen is so great that they have the appearance of being quite different varieties.

If there exist savages so barbarous as never to think of the inherited character of the offspring of their domestic animals yet any one animal particularly useful to them for any special purpose would be carefully preserved during famines and other accidents to which savages are so liable and such choice animals would thus generally leave more offspring than the inferior ones so that in this case there would be a kind of unconscious selection going on. We see the value set on animals even by the barbarians of Tierra del Fuego by their killing and devouring their old women in times of dearth as of less value than their dogs.

In plants the same gradual process of improvement through the occasional preservation of the best individual whether or not sufficiently distinct to be ranked at their first appearance as distinct varieties and whether or not two or more species or races have become blended together by crossing may plainly be recognised in the increased size and beauty which we now see in the varieties of the heartsease *or* *pelargonium dahlia* and other plants when compared with the older varieties or with their parent stock. No one would ever expect to get a first-rate heartsease or dahlia from the seed of a wild plant. No one would expect to raise a first-rate melting pear from the seed of the wild pear though it might succeed from a poor seedling growing wild if it had come from a garden stock. The pear though cultivated in classical times appears from Pliny's description to have been a fruit of very inferior quality. I have seen great surprise expressed in horticultural works

the animal has been surprisingly modified by improved by careful selection in peacocks, from not being very easily bred and large to being easily bred, from being valuable

o maize probably differ more in size, than do the seeds of the distinct species in any one genus in the same two families. The same may be said of good in regard to the fruit of the plum and still more

angularly modified. In the case of the dog, it has varied to a slight extent, as I have elsewhere described.

Some authors have maintained that the amount of variation in domestic productions is so much reached, and cannot afterwards be exceeded. It would be somewhat rash to assert that this limit has been attained in any

case, as variation both by acting directly on the organization, and indirectly by affecting the reproductive system. It is not probable that the variability is an inherent and necessary concomitant, under all circumstances. The greater or less force of inheritance and the different results which variation will produce

we do not all admit of. Some, perhaps a great effect may be attributed to the increased use of parts. The final result thus rendered infinitely complex. In

instance there must be limit to the fleetness of any terrestrial animal, as this will be determined by the friction of the ground, the weight of body to be carried, and the power of contraction in the muscular fibres. But what concerns us is that the domestication of the same species differs from the wild in most characteristics which man has selected to and selected more than the distinct species of the same genus. Geoffroy St. Hilaire has proved this in regard to size and so it is the color and probably with the length of hair. With respect to fleetness, which depends on bodily characteristics. Eclipse as far as fleet and dexterity are concerned, is not so much as the natural species belonging to the same genus as with plants, the seeds of the different varieties of the bean

country the occasional intercrossing, with the aid of selection, has, no doubt, largely aided in the formation of new sub-breeds but the importance of crossing has been much exaggerated both in regard to animals and to those plants which are propagated by seed. With plants which are temporarily propagated by cuttings, buds, &c. the importance of crossing is immense for the cultivator may have

of little importance to us, for their endurance is not temporary. Of all these causes of change, the accumulation of selection, whether applied methodically and quickly or unconsciously and slowly by time, really seem to have been the predominant factor

The views appear to explain what has sometimes been noticed—namely that we know hardly anything about the origin or history of any of our domestic breeds. But in fact a breed like a dialect of a language can hardly be said to have a distinct origin. A man preserves and breeds from an individual with some slight deviation of structure or takes more care than usual in matching his best animals and thus improves them and the improved animals slowly spread in the immediate neighbourhood. But they will as yet hardly have a distinct name and from being only slightly valued their history will have been disregarded. When further improved by the same slow and gradual process they will spread more widely and will be recognised as something distinct and valuable and will then probably first receive a provincial name. In semi-civilised countries with little free communication the spreading of a new sub-breed would be a slow process. As soon as the points of value are once acknowledged the principle as I have called it of unconscious selection will always tend—perhaps more at one period than at another as the breed rises or falls in fashion—perhaps more in one district than in another according to the state of civilisation of the inhabitants—slowly to add to the characteristic features of the breed whatever they may be. But the chance will be infinitely small of any record having been preserved of such slow-varying and insensible changes.

Circumstances favourable to Man's Power of Selection

I will now say a few words on the circumstances favourable or the reverse to man's power of selection. A high degree of variability is obviously favourable as freely giving the materials for selection to work on: not that mere individual differences are not amply sufficient with extreme care to allow of the accumulation of a large amount of modification in almost any desired direction. But as variations manifestly useful or pleasing to man appear only occasionally the chance of their appearance will be much increased by a large number of individuals being kept. Hence number is of the highest importance for success.

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generally far more successful than amateurs in raising new and valuable varieties. A large number of individuals of an animal or plant can be reared only where the conditions for its propagation are favourable. When the individuals are scanty all will be allowed to breed whatever their quality may be and thus will effectually prevent selection. But probably the most important element is that the animal or plant should be so highly valued by man that the closest attention is paid to even the slightest deviations in its qualities or structure. Unless such attention be paid nothing can be effected. I have seen it gravely remarked that it was most fortunate that the strawberry began to vary just when gardeners began to attend to this plant. No doubt the strawberry had always varied since it was cultivated but the slightest varieties had been neglected. As soon however as gardeners picked out individual plants with slightly larger earlier or

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is an important element in the formation of new races—at least in a country which is already stocked with other races. In this respect enclosure of the land plays a part. Wandering savages or the inhabitants of open plains rarely possess more than one breed of the same species. Pigeons can be mated for life and this is a great convenience to the fancier for thus many races may be improved and kept true though mingled in the same aviary and this circumstance must have largely favoured the formation of new breeds. Pigeons I may add can be propagated in great numbers and at a very quick rate and inferior birds may be freely rejected as when killed they serve for food. On the other hand cats from their nocturnal rambling habits cannot be easily matched and although so much valued by women and children we rarely see a distinct breed long kept up which is as we do sometimes see are almost always imported from some other country. Although I do not doubt that at some domestic animals vary less than others yet the rarity or absence of distinct breeds of the cat the blue peacock goose &c may be attributed in many part to selection not having been brought into play in cats from the difficulty in pairing them in donkeys from only a

proved. On the other hand nurserymen from keeping large stocks of the same plant are

CHAPTER II

VARIATION UNDER NATURE

Before applying the principles arrived at in the last chapter to organic beings in a state of nature we must briefly discuss whether these latter are subject to any variation. To treat this subject properly a long catalogue of dry facts ought to be given but these I shall reserve for a future work. Nor shall I here discuss the various definitions which have been given of the term species. No one definition has satisfied all naturalists yet every naturalist knows vaguely what he means when he speaks of a species. Generally the term in

of descent is almost universally implied though it can rarely be proved. We have also what are called monstrosities but they graduate into varieties. By a monstrosity I presume is meant some considerable deviation of structure generally injurious or not useful to the species. Some authors use the term variation in a technical sense as implying a modification directly due to the physical conditions of life and variations in this sense are supposed to be inherited but who can say that the

guessed that this had appeared as a monstrosity but I have as yet failed to find after diligent search cases of monstrosities resembling normal structures in nearly allied forms and little alone bear on the question. If monstrous forms of this kind ever do appear in a state of nature and are capable of reproduction (which is not always the case) as they occur rarely and irregularly their preservation would depend on unusually favourable circumstances. They would also during the first and succeeding generations cross with the ordinary form and thus their abnormal character would almost inevitably be lost. But I shall have to return in a future chapter to the preservation and perpetuation of single or occasional variations.

Individual Differences

The many slight differences which appear in the offspring from the same parents or which it may be presumed have thus arisen from being observed in the individuals of the same species inhabiting the same confined locality may be called individual difference. No one supposes that all the individuals of the same

far north and would not in some cases be inherited for at least a few generations? And in this case I presume that the form would be called a variety.

It may be doubted whether sudden and considerable deviations of structure such as we occasionally see in our domestic productions

every part fully related to its complex conditions of life that it seems improbable that any part should have been suddenly produced perfect as that a complex machine should have been invented by man in a perfect state. Under domestication monstrosities sometimes occur which resemble normal structures in widely different animals. Thus pigs have occasionally been born with a sort of proboscis and if any wild species of the same genus had naturally possessed a proboscis it might have been ar

afford material for natural selection to act on and accumulate in the same manner as man accumulates in any given direction individual

that parts which must be called important whether viewed under a physiological or classificatory point of view sometimes vary in the individuals of the same species. I am convinced that the most experienced naturalist would be surprised at the number of the cases of variability even in important parts of structure which he could collect on good authority as I have collected during a course of years. It should be remembered that systematists are far from being pleased at finding variability in important characters, and that there are not many men who will laboriously examine internal and important organs and compare them

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treats the one as a variety of the other ranking the most common but sometimes the one first described as the species and the other as the variety. But cases of great difficulty which I will not here enumerate sometimes arise in deciding whether or not to rank one form as a variety of another even when they are closely connected by intermediate links nor will the commonly assumed hybrid nature of the intermediate forms always remove the difficulty. In very many cases however one form is ranked as a variety of another not because the intermediate links have actually been found but because analogy leads the observer to suppose either that they do now somewhere exist or may formerly have existed and here a wide door for the entry of doubt and conjecture is opened.

Hence in determining whether a form should

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 jority of naturalists for few well marked and well known varieties can be named which have not been ranked as species by at least some competent judges.

That varieties of this doubtful nature are far from uncommon cannot be disputed. Compare the several floras of Great Britain of France or of the United States drawn up by different botanists and see what a surprising number of forms have been ranked by one botanist as good species and by another as mere varieties. Mr H. C. Watson to whom I have under deep obligation for a sistance of all kinds has marked for me 187 British plants which are generally considered as varieties but which have all been ranked by botanists as species and in making this list he has omitted many trifling varieties which nevertheless have been ranked by some botanists as species and he has entirely omitted several highly polymorphic genera. Under genera including the most polymorphic forms Mr Babington gives 231 species whereas Mr Bentham gives only 112—a difference of 139 doubtful forms!

Amongst animals which unite for each birth and which are highly locomotive doubtful forms ranked by one zoologist as a species and by another as a variety can rarely be found within the same country but are common in separated areas. How many of the birds and insects in North America and Europe which differ very slightly from each other have been ranked by one eminent naturalist as undoubted

species and by another as varieties or as they are often called geographical races? Mr Wallace in several valuable papers on the various animals especially on the Lepidoptera illustrating the islands of the great Malayan archipelago shows that they may be classed under four heads namely as variable forms as local forms as geographical races or sub species and as true representative species. The first or variable forms vary much within the limits of the same island. The local forms are moderately constant and distinct in each separate island but when all from the several islands are compared together the differences are seen to be so slight and graduated that it is impossible to define or describe them though at the same time the extreme forms are sufficiently distinct. The geographical races or sub species are local forms completely fixed and isolated but as they do not differ from each other by strongly marked and important characters

there is no possible test but in individual opinion to determine which of them shall be considered as species and which as varieties. Lastly representative species fill the same place in the natural economy of each island as do the local forms and sub species but as they are distinguished from each other by a greater amount of difference than that between the local forms and sub species they are almost universally ranked by naturalists as true species. Nevertheless no certain criterion can possibly be given by which variable forms, local forms, sub species and representative species can be recognised.

Many years ago when comparing and seeing others compare the birds from the closely neighbouring islands of the Galapagos Archipelago one with another and with those from the American mainland I was much struck how entirely vague and arbitrary is the distinction between species and varieties. On the islets of the little Madeira group there are many insects which are characterised as varieties in Mr Wollaston's beautiful work but which would certainly be ranked as distinct species by many entomologists. Even I could find a few animals now generally regarded as varieties but which have been ranked as species

as varieties as the cater number rank it as an undoubted species peculiar to Great Britain. A small distance between the forms of two doubtful forms leads many naturalists to rank

now to be the case b. Mr Wollaston with the varieties of certain fossil land-shells in Macedonia and with plants by Gaston de Saporta. If varieties were to flourish so as to exceed in number the parent species, I would then rank as the species, and the species as the variety, as it might come to supplant and exterminate the parent species, or both might co-exist, and not rank as numerous distinct species. But we shall hereafter return to this subject.

From these remarks it will be seen that I use the term species as one arbitrary term even for the sake of convenience, it is a set of individuals closely resembling each other and that does not essential differ from the term variety which is given to less distinct and more fluctuating forms. The term variety again in comparison with mere individual differences is also argued arbitrarily for convenience sake.

Whether much guarded and common species are most

Guarded by theoretical considerations, I thought that some interesting results might be obtained as regards the nature and relations of the species which vary most, by tabulating all the varieties in several well-worked floras. At first this seemed a simple task, but Mr H. C. Watson, to whom I am much indebted for valuable advice and assistance on this subject, soon convinced me that there were many difficulties, as did subsequently D. Hooker even in stronger terms. I shall reserve for future occasion a discussion of these difficulties, and the tables of the proportional numbers of the various species. D. Hooker permits me to add that after his careful reading, many scraps and examples of the tables he thinks that the following statements are fairly well established. The whole subject, however, treated as it necessarily is with much brevity, is rather perplexing and anxious cannot be referred to the struggle for existence, divergence of character, and other important branches to be discussed.

Alphonse C. Candolle and other have shown that such high and very wide ranges generally represent varieties and thus might have been expected as they are exposed to various local conditions, and as they come into contact with such as we shall hereafter see, as an equally more important circumstance) in different sets of organic beings. But it may be further shown that, in a limited country the species which are the most common,

that is abound most in individuals, and the species which are most widely diffused within their own country (and thus is a different consideration from wide range and to a certain extent from commonness) oftenest give rise to varieties sufficient to be marked to have been recorded in two animal worlds. Hence it is the most flourishing, or as they may be called, the dominant species—those which range widely are the most diffused in their own country and are the most numerous in individuals,—which oftenest produce well-marked varieties, or as I consider them, incipient species. And thus, perhaps, may have been anticipated for as varieties more likely to become dominant per manent, necessarily have to struggle with the other inhabitants of the country the species which are already dominant will be the most likely to yield offspring, which, though in some slight degree modified, still inherit those advantages that enabled their parents to become dominant over their competitors. In these remarks on predominance it should be understood that reference is made only to the forms which come into competition with each other and more especially to the members of the same genus or class having nearly similar habits of life. With respect to the number of individuals or commonness of species, the comparison of course relates only to the members of the same group. One of the higher plants may be said to be dominant if it be more numerous in individuals and more widely diffused than the other plants of the same country which live under nearly the same conditions. A plant of this kind is not the less dominant because some confervoid inhabiting the water or some parasitic fungus is infinitely more numerous in individuals and more widely diffused. But if the confervoid or parasitic fungus exceeds its allies in the above respects, it will then be dominant within its own class.

Species of the Larrea Genera in each Country are more friendly than the Species of the male Genera

If the plants inhabiting a country as described in an Flora be divided into two equal masses, all those in the larger genera (i.e. those including many species) being placed on one side and all those in the smaller genera on the other side, the former will be found to include a somewhat larger number of the very common and much diffused or dominant species. This might have been anticipated for the

never varying on the same tree and never found connected by intermediate states. After this discussion the result of so much labour he emphatically remarks. They are mistaken who repeat that the greater part of our species are clearly limited and that the doubtful species are in a feeble minority. This seemed to be true so long as a genus was imperfectly known and its species were founded upon a few specimens that is to say were provisional. Just as we come to know them better intermediate forms flow in and doubts as to specific limits augment. He also adds that it is the best known species which present the greater number of spontaneous varieties and sub-varieties. Thus *Quercus robur* has twenty-eight varieties all of which excepting six are clustered round three sub-species namely *Q. pedunculata sessiliflora* and *pubescens*. The forms which connect these three sub-species are comparatively rare and as Asa Gray again remarks if these connecting forms which are now rare were to become wholly extinct the three sub-species would hold exactly the same relation to each other as do the four or five provisionally admitted species which closely surround the typical *Quercus robur*. Finally De Canolle admits that out of the 300 species which will be enumerated in his *Irodromus* as belonging to the oak family at least two-thirds are provisional species that are not known strictly to fulfil the definition above given of a true species. It should be added that De Canolle no longer believes that species are immutable creations but concludes that the derivative theory is the most natural one and the most accordant with the known facts in paleontology, geographical botany and zoology of anatomical structure and classification.

When a young naturalist commences the study of a group of organisms quite unknown to him he is at first much perplexed in determining what differences to consider as specific and what as varietal for he knows nothing of the amount and kind of variation to which the group is subject and this shows at least how very generally there is some variation. But if he confine his attention to one class within one country he will soon make up his mind how to rank most of the doubtful forms. His general tenacity will be to make many species for he will become impressed just like the pigeon or poultry amount continually. Knowledge of analogical variation in other

groups and in other countries by which to correct his first impressions. As he extends the range of his observations, he will meet with more cases of difficulty for he will encounter a greater number of closely allied forms. But if his observations be widely extended he will in the end generally be able to make up his own mind but he will succeed in this at the expense of admitting much variation—and the truth of this admission will often be disputed by other naturalists. When he comes to study allied forms brought from countries not now continuous in which case he cannot hope to find intermediate links he will be compelled to trust almost entirely to analogy and his difficulties will rise to a climax.

Certainly no clear line of demarcation has as yet been drawn between species and sub-species—that is the form which in the opinion of some naturalists come very near to but do not quite arrive at the rank of species or again between sub-species and well marked variety or between lesser varieties and individual differences. The differences blend into each other by an insensible series and a series impresses the mind with the idea of an actual passage.

Hence I look at individual differences, though of small interest to the systematist as of the highest importance for us as being the first steps towards such slight varieties as are barely thought worth recording in works on natural history. And I look at varieties which are in any degree more distinct and permanent as steps towards more strongly marked and permanent varieties and at the latter as leading to sub-species and then to species. The passage from one stage of difference to another may in many cases be the simple result of the nature of the organism and of the different physical conditions to which it has long been exposed but with respect to the more important and adaptive characters the passage from one stage of difference to another may be safely attributed to the cumulative action of natural selection hereafter to be explained and to the effects of the increased use or disuse of parts. Well marked sub-species may therefore be called an incipient species but he that this belief is justifiable must be judged by the weight of the various facts and considerations to be given throughout this work.

It need not be supposed that all varieties or incipient species attain the rank of species. They may become extinct or they may endure as varieties for very long periods, as has been

species is often exceedingly small. I have endeavoured to test this numerically by a rather extensive series of experiments, and the results, so far as they go, are, as far as I am concerned, imperfect results, but they confirm the view. I have also consulted some experienced observers, and after deliberation, I am inclined to concur in this view. In this respect, therefore, the species of the larger genera resemble varieties, more than do the species of the smaller genera. On this case may be said in answer to what I may be said, that in the larger genera, in which a number of varieties or incipient species grow, that the average are now manufacturing, many of the species are now manufactured still to certain extent resemble varieties, for they differ from each other by less than the usual amount of difference.

Moreover the species of the larger genera are related to each other in the same manner as the varieties of an origin species are related to each other. Naturalists pretend that all the species of a genus are equally distinct from each other. The mass generally be divided into subgenera, or sections, or lesser groups. As Fries has remarked, little groups of species are generally clustered like satellites around other species. And what are varieties but groups of forms, unequally related to each other and clustered round certain forms—that is, round their parent species. Undoubtedly there is one most important point of difference between varieties and species, namely that the amount of difference between varieties, when compared with each other or with their parent species, is much less than that between the species of the same genus. But when we come to discuss this principle, as I call it, of Difference of Character, we shall see how this may be explained, and how the lesser differences between varieties tend to increase into the greater differences between species.

There is one other point which is worth noticing. Varieties generally have much restricted ranges; this statement is indeed scarcely more than truism, for if a variety were found to have a wider range than that of its supposed parent species, their designations would be reversed. But there is reason to believe that the species which are very closely allied to other species, and in so far resemble varieties, often have much restricted ranges. For instance, Mr H. C. Watson has marked fifteen in the well-known *London Catalogue of Plants* (4th edition) 63 plants which are therein ranked as species, but which he considers as

so closely allied to other species as to be of doubtful value. These 63 reputed species range in an average of 6.9 of the provinces into which Mr Watson has divided Great Britain. Now in this same Catalogue 3 acknowledged varieties are recorded and these range over provinces whereas the species to which they are related belong to 14.3 provinces. So that the acknowledged varieties have nearly the same restricted range range as have the closely allied forms, marked forms by Mr Watson as doubtful species, but which are almost universally ranked by British botanists as good and true species.

Summary

Finally varieties cannot be distinguished from species,—except, first, by the discovery of intermediate linking forms, and, secondly, by a certain and finite amount of difference between them for two forms, if differing very little are generally ranked as varieties, notwithstanding that they cannot be closely connected by the amount of difference considered necessary to give to an two forms the rank of species cannot be defined. In genera having more than the average number of species in an country the species of the genus are more than the average number of varieties. In large genera the species are apt to be

restricted ranges. In all these respects the species of large genera present strong analogy with varieties. And we can clearly understand these analogies, if species are excluded as varieties, and thus originated whereas, these analogies are utterly inexplicable if species are independent creations.

We have also seen that it is the most flourishing dominant species of the larger genera within each class which on an average yield the greatest number of varieties and varieties, as we shall hereafter see tend to become converted into new and distinct species. Thus the large genera tend to become larger and throughout nature the forms of life which are now dominant tend to become still more dominant by being more modified and dominant descendants. But this process has to be explained, the large genera also tend to break up into smaller genera. And thus, the forms of life throughout the universe become divided into groups subordinate to groups.

mere fact of many species of the same genus inhabiting any country shows that there is something in the organic or inorganic conditions of that country favourable to the genus and consequently we might have expected to have found in the larger genera or those including many species a larger proportional number of dominant species. But so many causes tend to obscure this result that I am surprised that my tables show even a small majority on the side of the larger genera. I will here allude to only two causes of obscurity. Fresh water and salt loving plants generally have very wide ranges and are much diffused but this seems to be connected with the nature of the stations inhabited by them and has little or no relation to the size of the genera to which the species belong. Again plants low in the scale of organisation are generally much more widely diffused than plants higher in the scale and here again there is no close relation to the size of the genera. The cause of lowly organised plants ranging widely will be discussed in our chapter on Geographical Distribution.

From looking at species as only strongly marked and well-defined varieties I was led to anticipate that the species of the larger genera in each country would oftener present varieties than the species of the smaller genera for wherever many closely related species (i.e.

large trees grow we expect to find saplings. Where many species of a genus have been formed through variation circumstances have been favourable for variation and hence we might expect that the circumstances would generally be still favourable to variation. On the other hand if we look at each species as a special act of creation there is no apparent reason why more varieties should occur in a group having many species than in one having few.

To test the truth of this anticipation I have arranged the plants of twelve countries and the coleopterous insects of two districts into two nearly equal masses the species of the larger genera on one side and those of the smaller genera on the other side and it has invariably proved to be the case that a larger proportion of the species on the side of the larger genera presented varieties than on the side of the smaller genera. Moreover the species of the large genera which present any varieties invariably present a larger average num-

ber of varieties than do the species of the small genera. Both these results follow when another division is made and when all the least genera, with from only one to four species are altogether excluded from the tables. These facts are of plain signification on the view that species are only strongly marked and permanent varieties for wherever many species of the same genus have been formed or where if we may use the expression the manufactory of species has been active we ought generally to find the manufactory still in action more especially as we have every reason to believe the process of manufacturing new species to be a slow one. And this certainly holds true if varieties be looked at as incipient species for my tables clearly show as a general rule that wherever many species of a genus have been formed the species of that genus present a number of varieties that is of incipient species beyond the average. It is not that all large genera are now varying much and are thus increasing in the number of their species or that no small genera are now varying and increasing for if this had been so it would have been fatal to my theory inasmuch as geology plainly tells us that small genera have in the lapse of time often increased greatly in size and that large genera have often come to their maxima, declined and disappeared. All that we want to show is that when many species of a genus have been formed on an average many are still forming and this certainly holds good.

Many of the Species included within the Larger Genera resemble Varieties in being very closely but unequally related to each other and in having restricted ranges

is no infallible criterion by which to distinguish species and well marked varieties and when intermediate links have not been found between doubtful forms naturalists are compelled to come to a determination by the amount of difference between them judging by analogy whether or not the amount suffices to raise one or both to the rank of species. Hence the amount of difference is a very important criterion in settling whether two forms should be ranked as species or varieties. No variety has remarked in regard to plants and We twoed in regard to insects that in large genera the amount of difference between the

STRUGGLE FOR EXISTENCE

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The Term Struggle for Existence used in a large sense

I have premised that this term in a large and metaphorical sense includes the production of beings and individuals (which are important) to the life of the individual itself. The general principle of naturalism is that the

competition between the races is rapid. The numbers of all can do so for the world would not hold them.

The only exception to the rule that every generation naturally increases to such a rate that the number of individuals would soon become infinite by the progress of a single pair. Even low breeding man has doubled in twenty-five years. The rate would not be astronomical if the species were not checked by the influence of the environment. The only two seeds—and there is no plant so unproductive as this—its seedlings next year produced two more in twenty years. The millions of plants that

the individual is dying to the

many to see as the struggle and the battle for existence. The struggle for existence is the struggle for life.

the struggle for existence is the struggle for life.

each of the individuals of the same kind is a struggle for existence.

Geometrical Ratio of Increase

The natural life of the individual is a geometrical ratio of increase. The individual is a geometrical ratio of increase.

at which the number of individuals is increasing. The number of individuals is increasing. The number of individuals is increasing.

The struggle for existence is a struggle for life. The struggle for existence is a struggle for life. The struggle for existence is a struggle for life.

The struggle for existence is a struggle for life. The struggle for existence is a struggle for life. The struggle for existence is a struggle for life.

CHAPTER III

STRUGGLE FOR EXISTENCE

BEFORE entering on the subject of this chapter I must make a few preliminary remarks to show how the struggle for existence bears on Natural Selection. It has been seen in the last chapter that amongst organic beings in a state of nature there is some individual variability indeed I am not aware that this has ever been disputed. It is immaterial for us whether a multitude of doubtful forms be called species or sub-species or varieties what rank for instance the two or three hundred doubtful forms of British plants are entitled to hold if the existence of any well marked varieties be admitted. But the mere existence of individual variability and of some few well marked varieties though necessary as the foundation for the work, helps us but little in understanding how species arise in nature. How have all those exquisite adaptations of one part of the organisation to another part and to the conditions of life and of one organic being to another being been perfected? We see these beautiful co-adaptations most plainly in the woodpecker and the mistletoe and only a little less plainly in the humblest parasite which clings to the hairs of a quadruped or feathers of a bird in the structure of the beetle which dives through the water in the plumed seed which is wafted by the gentlest breeze in short we see beautiful adaptations everywhere and in every part of the organic world.

Again it may be asked how is it that varieties which I have called incipient species become ultimately converted into good and distinct species which in most cases obviously differ from each other far more than do the varieties of the same species? How do those groups of species which constitute what are called distinct genera and which differ from each other more than do the species of the

the offspring. The offspring also will thus have a better chance of surviving for of the many individuals of any species which are periodically born but a small number can survive. I have called this principle by which each slight variation if useful is preserved by the term Natural Selection in order to mark its relation to man's power of selection. But the expression often used by Mr Herbert Spencer of the Survival of the Fittest is more accurate and is sometimes equally convenient. We have seen that man's selection can certainly produce great results and can adapt organic beings to his own use through the accumulation of slight but useful variations given to him by the hand of Nature. But Natural Selection as we shall hereafter see is a power incessantly ready for action and is as immeasurably superior to man's feeble efforts as the works of Nature are to those of Art.

We will now discuss in a little more detail the struggle for existence. In my future work this subject will be treated as it well deserves at greater length. The elder De Candolle and Lyell have largely and philosophically shown that all organic beings are exposed to severe competition. In regard to plants no one has treated this subject with more spirit and ability than W. Herbert Dean of Manchester evidently the result of his great horticultural knowledge. Nothing is easier than to admit in words the truth of the universal struggle for life or more difficult—at least I have found it so—than constantly to bear this conclusion in mind. Yet unless it be thoroughly engrained in the mind the whole economy of nature with every fact on distribution, rarity, abundance, extinction and variation will be dimly seen or quite misunderstood. We behold the face of nature bright with gladness we often see superabundance of food we do not see or we forget that the birds which are idly singing round us mostly live on insects or seeds and are thus constantly destroying life or we forget how largely these songsters or their eggs or their nestlings are destroyed by birds and beasts of prey we do not always bear in mind that, though food may be now superabundant, it is not so at all seasons of each recurring year.

gle variations however slight and from what ever cause proceeding if they be in any degree profitable to the individuals of a species in their infinitely complex relations to other organic beings and to their physical conditions of life will tend to the preservation of such individuals and will generally be inherited by

grown plants thus out of twenty species growing on little plot of mown turf (three feet by four) nine species perished, from the other species being allowed to grow up freely.

The amount of food for each species of course gives the extreme limit to which each can increase, but very frequently it is not the available food but the service as prey to other animals which determines the rare numbers of a species. Thus, there seems to be little doubt that the stock of partridges, grouse and hares on an large estate depends chiefly on the destruction of vermin. If not one head of game were shot during the next twenty years in England, and at the same time if no vermin were destroyed, there would, in all probability, be less game than at present, although hundreds of thousands of game animals are now annually shot. On the other hand, in some cases, as with the elephant, none are destroyed by beasts of prey, for even the tiger in India most rarely dares to attack a young elephant protected by its dam.

Climate plays an important part in determining the average number of species, and periodical seasons of extreme cold or drought seem to be the most effective of all checks. I estimated (chiefly from the greatly reduced numbers of nests in the spring) that the winter of 1854 destroyed four fifths of the birds in many grounds, and this is tremendous destruction, when we remember that ten per cent is an extraordinarily severe mortality from epidemics with man. The action of climate seems at first sight to be quite independent of the struggle for existence, but in so far as climate chiefly acts in reducing food, it brings on the most severe struggle between the two animals, whether of the same or of distinct species, which subsist on the same kind of food. Even where climate of instance extreme cold, acts directly it will be the least vigorous individuals, or those which have got least food through the advance winter which will suffer most. When we travel from south to north, or from dampness to dry, we invariably see some species gradually getting rarer and rarer and finally disappearing, and the change of animal being conspicuous, we are tempted to attribute the whole effect to its direct action. But this is false, for we forget that each species, wherever it most abounds, is constantly suffering enormous destruction at some; not only of its life, from enemies, from competitors for the same place and food, and if these enemies or competitors be in the least

weakened by any slight change of climate

weakened in numbers, we may feel sure that the cause lies quite as much in other species being favoured, as in this one being hurt. So it is when we travel northward, but in a somewhat lesser degree for the number of species of all kinds, and therefore of competitors, decreases northward. Hence in going northwards, or in ascending a mountain, we far oftener meet with hunted forms, due to the directly injurious action of climate than we do in proceeding southwards or in descending a mountain. When we reach the arctic regions, or snow-capped summits, or absolute deserts, the struggle for life is almost exclusively with the elements.

That climate acts in main part indirectly by favouring other species, we clearly see in the prodigious number of plants which in our gardens can perfectly well endure our climate but which never become naturalised, so they cannot compete with our native plants nor

seems to be the case. In many cases, a large stock of individuals of the same species, relatively to the numbers of its enemies, is absolutely necessary for its preservation. Thus we can easily raise plenty of corn and rape seed, &c., in our fields, because the seeds are in great excess compared with the number of birds which feed on them, nor can the birds, though having a super-abundance of food, thus on season, increase in number proportionally to the supply of seed, as their numbers are checked during the winter; but any one who has tried, knows how troublesome it is to get seed from a few wheat or other such plants in a garden. I have in this case lost very much seed. This view of the necessity of a large

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any sensible degree. The obvious explanation is that the conditions of life have been highly favourable and that the

geometrical ratio of increase the result of which never fails to be surprising simply explains their extraordinarily rapid increase and wide diffusion in their new homes.

In a state of nature almost every full grown plant annually produces seed and amongst animals there are very few which do not annually pair. Hence we may confidently assert that all plants and animals are tending to increase at a geometrical ratio—that all would rapidly stock every station in which they could anyhow exist—and that this geometrical tendency to increase must be checked by destruction at some period of life. Our familiarity with the larger domestic animals tends I think to mislead us: we see no great destruction falling on them but we do not keep in mind that thousands are annually slaughtered for food and that in a state of nature an equal number would have somehow to be disposed of.

The only difference between organisms which annually produce eggs or seeds by the thousand and those which produce extremely few is that the slow breeders would require a few more years to people under favourable conditions a whole district let it be ever so large. The condor lays a couple of eggs and the ostrich a score and yet in the same country the condor may be the more numerous of the two: the Fulmar petrel lays but one egg yet it is believed to be the most numerous bird in the world. One fly deposits hundreds of eggs and another like the hippoboscæ a single one but this difference does not determine how many individuals of the two species can be supported in a district. A large number of eggs is of some importance to those species which depend on a fluctuating amount of food for it allows them rapidly to increase in number. But the real importance of a large number of eggs or seeds is to make up for much destruction at some period of life and this period in the great majority of cases is an early one. If an animal can in any way protect its own eggs or young a small number may be produced and yet the average stock be fully kept up but if many eggs or young are destroyed many must be produced or the species will become extinct. It would suffice to keep up the full number of a tree which lived on an average for a thou-

sand years if a single seed were produced once in a thousand years supposing that this seed were never destroyed and could be ensured to germinate in a fitting place. So that in all cases the average number of any animal or plant depends only indirectly on the number of its eggs or seeds.

In looking at Nature it is most necessary to keep the foregoing considerations always in mind—never to forget that every single organic being may be said to be striving to the utmost to increase in numbers that each lives by a struggle at some period of its life that heavy destruction inevitably falls either on the young or old during each generation or at recurrent intervals. Lighten any check mitigate the destruction ever so little and the number of the species will almost instantaneously increase to any amount.

Nature of the Checks to Increase

The causes which check the natural tendency of each species to increase are most obscure. Look at the most vigorous species by as much as it swarms in numbers by so much will it tend to increase still further. We know not exactly what the checks are even in a single instance. Nor will this surprise any one who reflects how ignorant we are on this head even in regard to mankind although so incomparably better known than any other animal. This subject of the checks to increase has been ably treated by several authors and I hope in a future work to discuss it at considerable length more especially in regard to the feral animals of South America. Here I will make only a few remarks just to recall to the reader's mind some of the chief points. Eggs or very young animals seem generally to suffer most but this is not invariably the case. With plants there is a vast destruction of seeds but from some observations which I have made it appears that the seedlings suffer most from germination. They are crowded with insects and are often destroyed in the starve on a piece of ground till the forest is almost twice the size dug and cleared and where there could be no choking from other plants, I marked all the seedlings of our native plants as they came up and out of 37 no less than 20 were destroyed chiefly by slugs and insects. If turf which has long been mown and the case would be the same with turf closely browsed by deer or ruminants be let to grow the more vigorous plants gradually kill the less vigorous though

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balanced, that the face of nature remains for long periods of time uniform though assuredly the merest trifle would give the victory to one organic being or another. Nevertheless, so profound is our ignorance and so high our presumption, that we marvel when we hear of the extinction of an organic being and as we do not see the cause, we believe in the cataclysm to desolate the world.

I am tempted to go some rein-stance showing how plants and animals remain in the scale of nature are bound together by a web of complex relations. I shall hereafter have occasion to show that the *Lobelia fulgens* is preserved by insects, and

to remove their pollen masses and thus to fertilise them. I find from experiments that humble-bees are almost indispensable to the fertilisation of the heartsease (*of tricolor*) for other bees do not visit this flower. I have also found that the visits of bees are necessary for the fertilisation of some kinds of *Lotus*. I have observed the head of *Dithyram*

produced 100 seeds, but the same number of protected heads produced not a single seed. If humble-bees also visit red clover as other bees cannot reach the nectar. It has been suggested that in the main fertilise the flowers but I doubt whether they could do so in the case of the red clover from their weight not being sufficient to depress the wing petals. Hence we may infer as highly probable that, if the whole genus of humble-bees became extinct or very rare in England, the heartsease and red clover would become very rare or wholly disappear. The number of humble bees in any district depends in a great measure upon the number of field mice, which destroy their combs and nests and Col. Newman, who has long attended to the habits of humble-bees, believes that more than two-thirds of them are thus destroyed all over England. With the number of mice is largely dependent, as everyone knows, the number of cats and Col. Newman says, Near villages and small towns I have found the nests of humble-bees in numerous towns elsewhere which I attribute to the number of cats that destroy the mice. Hence it is quite credible that the presence of a

large number in a district

In the case of very peculiar cases, checks, acting at different periods of life, and during different seasons or years, probably come into play—some on check or some few being generally the most potent but all will concur in determining the average number in the existence of the species. In some cases it can be shown that widely-different checks act in the same species in different districts. When we look at the plants and bushes clothing an entangled bank, we are tempted to attribute their proportional numbers and kinds to what we call chance. But how false a view is this. Every one has heard that when an American forester is cut down a very different

getal springs up but it has been observed that ancient Indian ruins in the southern United States, which must formerly have been cleared of trees, now display the same beautiful diversity and proportion of kinds as in the surrounding virgin forest. What a struggle must have gone on during long centuries between the several kinds of trees and annually scattering its seeds by the thousand what war between insect and insect—between insects, snails, and the animals with birds and beasts of prey—all trying to increase all feeding each other the trees, their seeds and seedlings, and their plants which first clothed the ground and thus checked the growth of the trees! Throw up a handful of feathers, and all fall to the ground according to different laws but the simple is the problem where each shall fall compared to the effect of action and reaction of the innumerable plants and animals which have endured, in the course of centuries, the proportional numbers and kinds of trees now growing in the Indian ruins.

The dependence of one organic being on another as a parasite on its prey is generally between beings remote in the scale of nature. This is likewise sometimes the case with those which may be strictly said to be, generally speaking, of the same order as in the case of locusts and grass-feeding quadrupeds. But the struggle will almost invariably be most severe between the individuals of the same species, for they frequent the same districts, require the same food and are exposed to the same dangers. In the case of varieties of the same species, the struggle will generally be

stock of the same species for its preservation explains I believe some singular facts in nature such as that of very rare plants being sometimes extremely abundant in the few spots where they do exist and that of some social plants being social that is abounding in individuals even on the extreme verge of their range for in such cases we may believe that a plant could exist only where the conditions of its life were so favourable that many could exist together and thus save the plants from utter destruction I should add that the good effects of intercrossing and the ill effects of close interbreeding no doubt come into play in many of these cases but I will not here enlarge on this subject

Complex Relations of all Animals and Plants to each other in the Struggle for Existence

Many cases are on record showing how complex and unexpected are the checks and relations between organic beings which have to struggle together in the same country I will give only a single instance which though a simple one interested me In Staffordshire on the estate of a relation where I had ample means of investigation there was a large and extremely barren heath which had never been touched by the hand of man but several hundred acres of exactly the same nature I had enclosed twenty five years previously and planted with Scotch fir The change in the native vegetation of the planted part of the heath was most remarkable more than is generally seen in passing from one quite different soil to another not only the proportional numbers of the heath plants were wholly changed but twelve species of plant (not counting grasses and carices) flourished in the plantations which could not be found on the heath The effect on the insects must have been still greater for six insectivorous birds were very common in the plantations which were not to be seen on the heath and the heath was frequented by two or three distinct insectivorous birds Here we see how potent has been the effect of the introduction of a single tree nothing whatever else having been done with the exception of the land having been enclosed so that cattle could not enter But how important an element enclosure is I plainly saw near Farnham in Surrey Here there are extensive heaths, with a few clumps of old Scotch firs on the distant hilltops within

the last ten years large spaces have been enclosed and self sown firs are now springing up in multitudes so close together that all can not live When I ascertained that these young firs had not been sown or planted I was so much surprised at their numbers that I went to several points of view whence I could examine hundreds of acres of the uncultivated heath and literally I could not see a single Scotch fir except the old planted clumps But on looking closely between the stems of the heath I found a multitude of seedlings and little trees which had been perpetually browsed down by the cattle In one square yard at a point some hundred yards distant from one of the old clumps I counted thirty two little trees and one of them with twenty six rings of growth had during many years tried to raise its head above the stems of the heath and had failed No wonder that, as soon as the land was enclosed it became thickly clothed with vigorously growing young firs Yet the heath was so extremely barren and so extensive that no one would ever have imagined that cattle would have so closely and effectually searched it for food

Here we see that cattle absolutely determine the existence of the Scotch fir but in several parts of the world insects determine the existence of cattle Perhaps Paraguay offers the most curious instance of this for here neither cattle nor horses nor dogs have ever run wild though they swarm southward and northward in a feral state and Azara and Rengger have shown that this is caused by the greater number in Paraguay of a certain fly which lays its eggs in the navels of these animals when first born The increase of these flies numerous as they are must be habitually checked by some means probably by other parasitic insects Hence if certain insectivorous birds were to increase in Paraguay the parasitic insects would probably increase and this would lessen the number of the navel frequenting flies—then cattle and horses would become feral and thus would certainly greatly alter (as in fact I have observed in parts of South America) the vegetation this again would largely affect the insects and thus we have just seen in Staffordshire the insectivorous birds, and so onwards in ever increasing circles of complexity Not that under nature the relations will ever be as simple as this Battle with battle must be continually recurring with varying success and yet in the long run the forces are so nicely

Arctic regions on the borders of an arctic
desert, will competition arise. The land may
be extremely cold and dry, yet the soil will be
competitively between some few species, so be-
cause the conditions of the soil are the same for
the arctic damp spots.

If we can tell that when a plant or
animal is placed in a new country among
competitors, the effect of itself will
generally be changed in an essential manner
although the limit may be exactly the same
as in its former home. If this is a rule, numbers
are increased in the new home, we should
have to modify this in a different way to what
we should have had to do in the natural country.
If we should have to go to some distant
tag, or different set of circumstances, or
more.

It is good thus to try in imagination to give
to the new species an advantage over the
probably numerous original inhabitants known
what it did. This ought to convince us of our
position on the materialistic fallacy.

As a rule
is it going to increase in a geometrical ratio
that each at some period of its life during
some season of the year is doing each generation
at no other time, last struggle of life and
to the great truth. When we reflect on
this struggle we may consider ourselves that
the life itself is at the very nature of the
necessant, that in fact, that death is
generally prompt and that the group the
healthy and the happy and multiply

almost equally severe and we sometimes see the contest soon decided for instance if several varieties of wheat be sown together and the mixed seed be re sown some of the varieties which best suit the soil or climate or are naturally the most fertile will beat the others and so yield more seed and will consequently in a few years supplant the other varieties To keep up a mixed stock of even such extremely close varieties as the variously coloured sweet peas they must be each year harvested separately and the seed then mixed in due proportion otherwise the weaker kinds will steadily decrease in number and disappear So again with the varieties of sheep it has been asserted that certain mountain varieties will starve out other mountain varieties so that they cannot be kept together The same result has followed from keeping together different varieties of the medicinal leech It may even be doubted whether the varieties of any of our domestic plants or animals have so exactly the same strength habits and constitution that the original proportions of a mixed stock (crossing being prevented) could be kept up for half a dozen generations if they were allowed to struggle together in the same manner as beings in a state of nature and if the seed or young were not annually preserved in due proportion

Struggle for Life most severe between Individuals and Varieties of the same Species

As the species of the same genus usually have though by no means invariably much similarity in habits and constitution and always in structure the struggle will generally be more severe between them if they come in to competition with each other than between the species of distinct genera We see this in the recent extension over parts of the United States of one species of swallow having caused the decrease of another species The recent increase of the missel thrush in parts of Scotland has caused the decrease of the song thrush How frequently we hear of one species of rat taking the place of another species under the most different climates In Russia the small Asiatic cockroach has everywhere driven before it its great congener In Australia the imported hive bee is rapidly exterminating the small stingless native bee One species of charlock has been known to supplant another species and so in other cases We can dimly see why the competition should be most severe between allied forms which fill nearly the

same place in the economy of nature but probably in no one case could we precisely say why one species has been victorious over another in the great battle of life

A corollary of the highest importance may be deduced from the foregoing remark namely that the structure of every organic being is related in the most essential yet often hidden manner to that of all the other organic beings, with which it comes into competition for food or residence or from which it has to escape or on which it preys This is obvious in the structure of the teeth and talons of the tiger and in that of the legs and claws of the parasite which clings to the hair on the tiger's body But in the beautifully plumed seed of the dandelion and in the flattened and fringed legs of the water beetle the relation seems at first confined to the elements of air and water Yet the advantage of plumed seeds no doubt stands in the closest relation to the land being already thickly clothed with other plants so that the seeds may be widely distributed and fall on unoccupied ground In the water beetle the structure of its legs so well adapted for diving allows it to compete with other aquatic insects to hunt for its own prey and to escape serving as prey to other animals

The store of nutriment laid up within the seeds of many plants seems at first to have no sort of relation to other plants But from the strong growth of young plants produced from such seeds as peas and beans when sown in the midst of long grass it may be suspected that the chief use of the nutriment in the seed is to favour the growth of the seedlings whilst struggling with other plants growing vigorously all around

Look at a plant in the midst of its range why does it not double or quadruple its numbers? We know that it can perfectly well withstand a little more heat or cold dampness or dryness for else where it ranges into slightly hotter or colder damper or drier districts In this case we can clearly see that if we wish in imagination to give the plant the power of increasing in number we should have to give it some advantage over its competitors or over the animals which prey on it On the confines of its geographical range a change of constitution with respect to climate would clearly be an advantage to our plant but we have reason to believe that only a few plants or animals range so far that they are destroyed exclusively by the rigour of the climate Not until we reach the extreme confines of life in the

of the inhabitants, independently of the change of climate itself, would seriously affect the course. If the country were open to its borders, new forms would certainly immigrate, and this would likewise seriously disturb the relations of some of the former inhabitants. Let it be remembered how powerful the influence of single introduced trees or mammals has been shown to be. But in the case of an island, or of

perfectly adapted to each other and to the physical conditions under which they live, that none of them could be still better adapted or improved for in all countries, the natives have been so far conquered by a naturalised production, that they have allowed some foreigners to take firm possession of the land. And as foreigners have thus in every country beaten some of the natives, we may safely conclude that the native might have been modified with advantage so as to have better resisted the intruders.

better fitted, if some of the original inhabitants were in some manner modified. If had the area been open to immigration, these same places would have been seized on by intruders. In such cases, slight modifications, which in any favoured the individuals of any species, by better adapting them to their altered conditions, would tend to be preserved and natural selection would have free scope for the work of improvement.

It has good reason to believe as when in the first chapter that changes in the conditions of life give tendency to increased variability and in the former cases the conditions are changed, and this would manifestly be favourable to natural selection, by affording a

tion, it must ever be forgotten that in the world all differences are undecided. As man can produce great results with his domestic animals and plants by adding pressure in any given direction and individual differences, so could natural selection, but far more easily from his incomparable longer term of action. And I believe that any great physical change as if climate any would free isolated to check immigration is necessary in order that new and improved places should be left for natural selection to fill probably improve in some of the original inhabitants. For as all the inhabitants of each country are struggling together the nicely balanced forces, extremely slight modifications in the true type of habits of the species would often give them an advantage over others and still further modifications of the same kind would often still further increase the advantage, as long as the species continued under the same conditions of life and protected by similar means of subsistence and defence. No country can be named in which all the native inhabitants are now so

As man can produce, and certainly has produced, a great result by his methodical and unconscious means of selection what may be natural selection effect. Man can act only on external and visible characters. Nature, if I may be allowed to personify the natural preserver, in the survival of the fittest, cares nothing for appearances, except in so far as they are useful to any being. She can act on every internal organ, on every shade of constitutional difference, on the whole machinery of life. Man selects only for his own good nature only for that of the being, which she tends. Every selected character is fully expressed by her as is implied by the fact of its selection. Man keeps the natives of many climates in the same country he seldom raises each selected character in some peculiar and fitting manner. He feeds a long and a short beaked peacock on the same food he does not exercise a long-backed long-legged quadruped in any peculiar manner he exposes sheep with long and short wool to the same climate. He does not allow the most numerous male to struggle for the females. He does not rigidly destroy all inferior animals, but protects during each varying season, as far as lies in his power all his productions. If it begins his selection by some half-inferior form at least by some modification prominent enough to catch the eye or to be plainly useful to him. Under nature the slightest differences of structure constitution may well turn the nicely balanced

how poor will be his results, compared with those accomplished by nature during whole geological periods. Can we wonder then, that nature's productions should be far truer in character than man's productions, that they should be infinitely better adapted to the most complex conditions of life, and should plainly bear the stamp of far higher workmanship.

CHAPTER IV

NATURAL SELECTION OR THE SURVIVAL OF THE FITTEST

How will the struggle for existence briefly discussed in the last chapter act in regard to variation? Can the principle of selection which we have seen so potent in the hands of man apply under nature? I think we shall see that it can act most efficiently. Let the endless number of slight variations and individual differences occurring in our domestic productions and in a lesser degree in those under nature be borne in mind as well as the strength of the hereditary tendency. Under domestication it may be truly said that the whole organisation becomes in some degree plastic. But the variability which we almost universally meet with in our domestic productions is not directly produced as Hooker and Asa Gray have well remarked by man; he can neither originate varieties nor prevent their occurrence; he can preserve and accumulate such as do occur. Unintentionally he exposes organic beings to new and changing conditions of life and variability ensues; but similar changes of conditions might and do occur under nature. Let it also be borne in mind how infinitely complex and close fitting are the

element, as perhaps we see in certain polymorphic species, or would ultimately become fixed owing to the nature of the organism and the nature of the conditions.

Several writers have misapprehended or objected to the term *Natural Selection*. Some have even imagined that natural selection induces variability, whereas it implies only the preservation of such variation as arises and are beneficial to the being under its conditions of life. No one objects to agriculturists speaking of the potent effect of man's selection and in this case the individual differences given by nature which man for some object selects must of necessity first occur. Others have objected that the term selection implies conscious choice in the animal which becomes modified and it has even been urged that, as plants have no volition, natural selection is not applicable to them! In the literal sense of the word no doubt natural selection is a false term, but who ever objected to chemists speaking of the elective affinities of the various elements?—and yet an acid cannot strictly be said to elect the base with which it in preference combine. It has been said that I speak of natural selection as an active power or Deity, but who objects to an author speaking of the attraction of gravity as ruling the movements of the planets? Every one knows what is meant and is implied by such metaphorical expressions and they are almost necessary for brevity. So again it is difficult to avoid personifying the word Nature, but I mean by Nature only the aggregate action and product of many natural laws and by laws the sequence of events as a certain I by us. With a little familiarity such superficial objections will be forgotten.

We shall best understand the probable course of natural selection by taking the case of a country undergoing some slight physical change for in time of climate. The proportional numbers of its inhabitants will almost immediately undergo a change and some species will probably become extinct. We may conclude from what we have seen of the intimate and complex manner in which the inhabitants of each country are bound together that any change in the numerical proportions

useful to man have undoubtedly occurred that other variations useful in some way to each being in the great and complex battle of life should occur in the course of many successive generations. If such do occur can we doubt (remembering that many more individuals are born than can possibly survive) that individuals having any advantage however slight over others would have the better chance of surviving and of procreating their kind? On the other hand we may feel sure that any

the destruction of those which are injurious I have called Natural Selection or the Survival of the Fittest. Variations neither useful nor injurious would not be affected by natural selection and would be left either a fluctuating

It may metaphorically be said that natural selection is daily and hourly scrutinising throughout the world the slightest variations rejecting those that are bad preserving and adding up all that are good silently and in sensibly working *whenever and wherever opportunity offers* at the improvement of each organic being in relation to its organic and inorganic conditions of life. We see nothing of these slow changes in progress until the hand of time has marked the lapse of ages and then so imperfect is our view into long past geological ages that we see only that the forms of life are now different from what they formerly were.

In order that any great amount of modification should be effected in a species a variety when once formed must again perhaps after a long interval of time vary or present in individual differences of the same favourable nature as before and these must be again preserved and so onwards step by step. Seemingly that in individual differences of the same kind perpetually recur this can hardly be considered as an unwarrantable assumption. But whether it is true we can judge only by seeing how far the hypothesis accords with and explains the general phenomena of nature. On the other hand the ordinary belief that the amount of possible variation is a strictly limited quantity is likewise a simple assumption.

Although natural selection can act only through and for the good of each being yet characters and structures which we are apt to consider as of very trifling importance may thus be acted on. When we see leaf-eating insects green and bark feeders mottled grey the alpine ptarmigan white in winter the red grouse the colour of heather we must believe that these tints are of service to these birds and insects in preserving them from danger. Crouse if not destroyed at some period of their lives would increase in countless numbers they are known to suffer largely from birds of prey and hawks are guided by eyesight to their prey—so much so that on parts

to destroy a lamb with the faintest trace of black. We have seen how the colour of the hogs which feed on the paint root in Virginia determines whether they shall live or die. In plants the down on the fruit and the colour of the flesh are considered by botanists as characters of the most trifling importance yet we hear from an excellent horticulturist Downing that in the United States, smooth-skinned fruits suffer far more from a beetle a Curculio than those with down that purple plums suffer far more from a certain disease than yellow plums whereas another disease attacks yellow-fleshed peaches far more than those with other coloured flesh. If with all the aids of art these slight differences make a great difference in cultivating the several varieties assuredly in a state of nature where the trees would have to struggle with other trees and with a host of enemies such differences would effectually settle which variety whether a smooth or downy, a yellow or purple-fleshed fruit should succeed.

In looking at many small points of difference between species which as far as our

effect. It is also necessary to bear in mind that owing to the law of correlation when one part varies and the variations are accumulated through natural selection other modifications, often of the most unexpected nature will ensue.

As we see that those variations which under domestication appear at any particular period of life tend to reappear in the offspring at the same period—for instance in the shape, size and flavour of the seeds of the many varieties of our culinary and agricultural plants in the caterpillar and cocoon stages of the varieties of the silk worm in the eggs of poultry and in the colour of the down of their chickens in the horns of our sheep and cattle when nearly adult—so in a state of nature natural selection will be enabled to act on and modify organic beings at any age by the accumulation of variations profitable at that age and by their inheritance at a corresponding age. If it profit a plant to have its seeds more and more widely disseminated by the wind I can see no greater difficulty in this being effected through natural selection than in the cotton-planter increasing and improving by selection the down in the pods on his cotton trees. Natural selection may modify and adapt the larva of

effective in giving the proper colour to each kind of grouse and in keeping that colour when once acquired true and constant. Nor ought we to think that the occasional destruction of an animal of any particular colour would produce little effect. We should remember how essential it is in a flock of white sheep

NATURAL SELECTION—SURVIVAL OF THE FITTEST

IV
 deer and the other more bulky with shorter legs, which more frequently attack the shepherd flocks.

It should be observed that in the above illustration, I speak of the slender individuals, and not of any single strongly marked variety, but in the present case I am referring to the whole of this work. I sometimes speak as if this latter alternative had frequently occurred. I saw the great importance of the dual differences, and the led me to discuss the results of unconscious selection by man which depends on the preservation of all the more or less adaptable individuals, and not the truest of the first. I saw also that the presence

the destruction of a still larger number with the same result.

It is certain which differences in organization become unimpaired or—of which fact numerous instances could be given with a domestic production. In such cases, if the various individual did not actually transmit to its offspring its newly-acquired character, it would undoubtedly transmit to them as long as the existing conditions remain the same until the progeny tend to vary in the same manner. There can also be a tendency to a variation in the

— I have seen

I did not appreciate how rarely glaucous, but the slight tinge marked could be perpetuated. They all take the case of a pair of animals, produced from the time when the first pair of the first from no seed true to the first and

800, 1000

rations. They live for the same time, I think be depicted. If the tinge of brown kind could proceed from food in as much as by having to be killed and if we were to run this back to the original which consequence it rushed, then this there would be a very poor chance of this in the individual perpetuating its kind to the last of the common form but there are really be different degrees by which we see taking place

of selection. Only a third fifth or tenth part of the individual may have been thus affected of which fact several necessities could

be found in many ranks as a variety of *Urtica lacyma*. I cases of this kind if the variety were to be fixed in nature then modified from the original by the influence of the fittest.

The effects of intercrossing in eliminating varieties of all kinds, I have been to occur but it may be here remarked that in the animals and plants kept to their proper limits, and do not exceedingly wander but we see the same with many gradations, which almost always result in the same point. Consequently, each new variety modified in the world generally be the first local as seems to be the common one with varieties that are not so thoroughly modified. I add that we would soon establish a model of the growth and would fit in breed together. If the individuals were successful in their battle of life, they would be the predestined to compete with the world, competing with the world, the hard-edged individual in the argument of an advantage.

It may be worth while to give an example and more completely illustrate the action of natural selection. Certain plants are retained by the people for the sake of the elimination of some of the inferior from the sap. This is effected, for instance, by gluing the base of the top of some Leguminosae and the the back of the leaf of the common laurel. These

wing to strike in the spurred leg in nearly the same manner as does the brutal cockfighter by the careful selection of his best cocks. How low in the scale of nature the law of battle descends I know not. male alligators have been described as fighting bellowing and whirling round like Indians in a war-dance for the possession of the females. male salmon have been observed fighting all day long. male stag beetles sometimes bear wounds from the huge mandibles of other males. the males of certain hymenopterous insects have been frequently seen by that inimitable observer M. Fabre fighting for a particular female who sits by an apparently unconcerned beholder of the struggle and then retires with the conqueror. The war is perhaps severest between the males of polygamous animals and these seem oftenest provided with special weapons. The males of carnivorous animals are already well armed though to them and to others special means of defence may be given through means of sexual selection as the mane of the lion and the hooked jaw to the male salmon. for the shield may be as important for victory as the sword or spear.

Amongst birds the contest is often of a more peaceful character. All those who have attended to the subject believe that there is the severest rivalry between the males of many species to attract by singing the females. The rock thrush of Guiana, birds of paradise and some others congregate and successive males

females which standing by as spectators at

has described how a pied peacock was eminently attractive to all his hen birds. I cannot here enter on the necessary details but if man can in a short time give beauty and an elegant carriage to his bantams according to his standard of beauty I can see no good reason to doubt that female birds by selecting during thousands of generations the most melodious or beautiful males according to their standard of beauty might produce a marked effect

be explained through the action of sexual selection on variations occurring at different ages

and transmitted to the males alone or to both sexes at corresponding ages but I have not space here to enter on this subject.

Thus it is as I believe that when the males and females of any animal have the same general habits of life but differ in structure colour or ornament such differences have been mainly caused by sexual selection that is by individual males having had in successive generations some slight advantage over other males in their weapons means of defence or charms which they have transmitted to their

arising and becoming attached to the male sex which apparently have not been augmented through selection by man. The tuft of hair on the breast of the wild turkey-cock cannot be of any use and it is doubtful whether it can be ornamental in the eyes of the female bird — indeed had the tuft appeared under domestication it would have been called a monstrosity.

Illustrations of the Action of Natural Selection or the Survival of the Fittest

In order to make it clear how as I believe natural selection acts I must beg permission to give one or two imaginary illustrations. Let us take the case of a wolf which preys on various animals securing some by craft some by strength and some by fleetness and let us suppose that the fleetest prey a deer for instance had from any change in the country increased in numbers or that other prey had decreased in numbers during that season of the year when the wolf was hardest pressed for food. Under such circumstances the swiftest and slimmest wolves would have the best chance of surviving and so be preserved or selected — provided always that they retained strength to master their prey at this or some other period of the year when they were compelled to prey on other animals. I can see no more reason to doubt that this would be the result than that man should be able to improve the fleetness of his greyhounds by careful and methodical selection or by that kind of unconscious selection which follows from each man trying to keep the best dogs with any thought of modifying the breed. I may add that according to Mr. Pierce there are two varieties of the wolf inhabiting the Catskill Mountains in the United States one with a light greyhound like form which pursues

bee or other insect, so that certain individuals could be able to obtain their food more quickly than others and thus the communities to which they belonged would flourish and throw off many swarms into the same peculiar states. The tubes of the corolla of the common red and incarnate clovers (*Trifolium pratense* and *incarnatum*) do not in hasty glance appear to differ in length, though the bumble-bee can easily suck the nectar out of the incarnate clover but not out of the common red clover which is visited by humble-bees alone, so that whole fields of red clover in vain are about with supply of precious nectar to the humble-bee. That this nectar is much liked by the humble-bee is certain from what I have repeatedly seen, but only in the autumn, many humble-bees sucking the nectar through the little tubes in the base of the tube of the humble-bees. The difference in the length of the corolla of the two kinds of clover which determines the visits of the humble-bee must be very trifling, for I have been assured that when red clover has been mown, the flowers of the second crop are some what mader and that these are visited by many humble-bees. I do not know whether this statement is accurate nor whether another published statement can be trusted, namely that the Ligurian bee which is generally considered a more variety of the common humble-bee and which freely crosses the latter, is able to reach and suck the nectar of the red clover. Thus, in a country where this kind of clover abounded, it might be great advantage to the humble-bee to have a slightly longer or differently constructed proboscis. On the other hand, as the fruit of this clover absolutely depends on bees visiting the flowers, if humble-bees were to become rare in any country it might be great advantage to the plant to have a short more deeply divided corolla, so that the humble-bees would be enabled to suck its flowers. Thus I can understand how the humble-bee might so easily become either simultaneously with the other modified and adapted to each other in the most perfect manner by the continued preservation of all the individuals which presented slight differences of structure mutually favorable to each other.

I am well aware that this doctrine of natural selection, exemplified in the also imaginary instances, is open to the same objections which were first urged against Sir Charles Lyell's noble view on the modern changes of the earth, as illustrative of geology but which now seldom bear the agencies which we see still at

work, spoken of as trifling or insignificant, when used in explaining the excavation of the deepest valleys or the formation of low lines of inland cliffs. Natural selection acts only by the preservation and accumulation of small inherited modifications, each profitable to the preserved being and as modern geology has almost banished such views as the excavation of a great valley by a single diluvial water so will natural selection banish the belief of the continued creation of new organic beings, or of any great and sudden modification in their structure.

On the Introduction of Individuals

I must here introduce a short digression. In the case of animals and plants with separated sexes, it is of course obvious that two individuals must always (with the exception of the curious and not well understood cases of parthenogenesis) unite at each birth but in the case of hermaphrodites this is far from obvious. Nevertheless there is reason to believe that with all hermaphrodites two individuals, either occasionally habitually co-occur for the reproduction of their kind. This view was

mainly based on the fact that all insects, and some other large groups of animals, pair at each birth. Modern research has much diminished the number of supposed hermaphrodites, and of real hermaphrodites a large number pair, that is, two individuals regularly unite for reproduction, which is all that concerns us. But still there are many hermaphrodite animals which certainly do not habitually pair and a vast majority of plants are hermaphrodites. What reason, it may be asked, is there for supposing in these cases that two individuals co-occur in reproduction? As it is impossible here to enter details, I must trust to some general considerations alone.

In the first place I have collected so large a body of facts, and made so many experiments, showing accordance with the ultimate belief of breeders, that with animals and plants cross between different varieties, or between individuals of the same variety but of another strain, gives more and fertility to the offspring and on the other hand, that close interbreeding diminishes vigor and fertility, that these facts alone incline me to be-

juice though small in quantity is greedily sought by insects but their visits do not in any way benefit the plant. Now let us suppose that the juice or nectar was excreted from the inside of the flowers of a certain number of plants of any species. Insects in seeking the nectar would get dusted with pollen and would often transport it from one flower to another. The flowers of two distinct individuals of the same species would thus get crossed and the act of crossing as can be fully proved gives rise to vigorous seedlings which consequently would have the best chance of flourishing and surviving. The plants which produced flowers with the largest glands or nectaries excreting most nectar would oftenest be visited by insects and would oftenest be crossed and so in the long run would gain the upper hand and form a local variety. The flowers also which had their stamens and pistils placed in relation to the size and habits of the particular insects which visited them so as to favour in any degree the transport of the pollen would likewise be favoured. We might have taken the case of insects visiting flowers for the sake of collecting pollen instead of nectar and as pollen is formed for the sole purpose of fertilisation its destruction appears to be a simple loss to the plant yet if a little pollen were carried at first occasionally and then habitually by the pollen-devouring insects from flower to flower and a cross thus effected although nine tenths of the pollen were destroyed it might still be a great gain to the plant to be thus robbed and the individuals which produced more and more pollen and had larger anthers would be selected.

When our plant by the above process long continued had been rendered highly attractive to insects they would unintentionally on their part regularly carry pollen from flower to flower and that they do this effectually I could easily show by many striking facts. I will give only one as likewise illustrating one step in the separation of the sexes of plants. Some holly trees bear only male flowers which have four stamens producing a rather small quantity of pollen and a rudimentary pistil

grains and on some a profusion. As the wind had set for several days from the female to the male tree the pollen could not thus have been carried. The weather had been cold and boisterous and therefore not favourable to bees, nevertheless every female flower which I examined had been effectually fertilised by the bees, which had flown from tree to tree in search of nectar. But to return to our imaginary case as soon as the plant had been rendered so highly attractive to insects that pollen was regularly carried from flower to flower another process might commence. No naturalist doubts the advantage of what has been called the physiological division of labour hence we may believe that it would be advantageous to a plant to produce stamens alone in one flower or on one whole plant and pistils alone in another flower or on another plant. In plants under culture and placed under new conditions of life sometimes the male organs and sometimes the female organs become more or less impotent now if we suppose this to occur in ever so slight a degree under nature then as pollen is already carried regularly from flower to flower and as a more complete separation of the sexes of our plant would be advantageous on the principle of the division of labour individuals with this tendency more and more increased would be continually favoured or selected until at last a complete separation of the sexes might be effected. It would take up too much space to show the various steps through which morphism and other means by which the separation of the sexes in plants of various kinds is apparently now in progress but I may add that some of the species of holly in North America are according to Asa Gray in an exactly intermediate condition or as he expresses it are more or less diœciously polygamous.

Let us now turn to the nectar feeding insects we may suppose the plant of which we have been slowly increasing the nectar by continued election to be a common plant and that at certain insects depended in main part on its nectar for food. I could give many facts showing how anxious bees are to save time for instance their habit of cutting holes and sucking the nectar at the bases of certain flowers which with a very little more trouble they can enter by the mouth. Bearing such facts in mind it may be believed that under certain circumstances individual differences in the curvature or length of the proboscis, &c. too slight to be appreciated by us might profit a

tree exactly sixty yards from a male tree. I put the stigmas of twenty flowers taken from different branches under the microscope and on all, without exception there were a few pollen

power of a distinct variety having a prepotent effect on the flowers when pollen and that this part of the general law of good being derived from the intercrossing of distinct individuals of the same species. When distinct varieties are crossed the case is reversed, for a plant own pollen is almost always prepotent over foreign pollen but to this subject we shall return hereafter.

It is true that in some trees, and at most only from flower to flower on the same tree and flowers on the same tree can be considered as distinct individuals only in a limited sense. I believe this objection to be valid, but that nature has largely provided against this giving to trees a strong tendency to bear flowers with separated sexes. When the sexes are separated, although the male and female flowers may be produced on the same tree, pollen must be regularly carried from flower to flower and this will give a better chance of pollen being occasionally carried from tree to tree. That trees belonging to all Orders have their sexes more often separated than other plants, I find to be the case in this

case, namely Professor Huxley to discover a single hermaphrodite animal with the organs of reproduction so perfectly enclosed that access from without, and the occasional influence of a distinct individual, can be shown to be physically impossible. Crustaceans long appeared to me to prevent, and this point I view as a case of great difficulty but I have been enabled, by a fortunate chance to prove that two individuals, though both are self-fertilising hermaphrodites, do sometimes cross.

It must have struck most naturalists as a strange anomaly that, both with animals and plants, some species of the same family and even of the same genus, though breeding closely with each other and the whole organisation, are hermaphrodites, and some unisexual. But if in fact, all hermaphrodites do occasionally intercross, the difference between them and unisexual species is, as far as function is concerned, very small.

From these several considerations and from the many special facts which I have collected but which I am unable here to give, it appears that with animals and plants an occasional intercross between distinct individuals is a very general, if not universal, law of nature.

Circumstances favourable for the production of new forms through Natural Selection

This is an extremely intricate subject. A great amount of variability under which the individual differences are always included will

in trees are dichogamous, the same result would follow as if they bore flowers with separated sexes. I have made these few remarks on trees simply to call attention to the subject.

Turning for a moment to animals, various terrestrial species are hermaphrodites, such as the land mollusca and earthworms but these all pair. As yet I have not found any terrestrial animal which can fertilise itself. This remarkable fact, which differs so strongly in contrast with terrestrial plants, is illustrated in the case of an occasional cross being indispensable for the nature of the fertilising element there are many analogies to the action of insects and of the wind with plants, by which an occasional cross could be effected in terrestrial animals with the concurrence of the usual means. Of aquatic animals, there are many self-fertilising hermaphrodites but here the currents of water offer an obvious means for an occasional cross. As in the case of flowers, I have as yet failed, after consultation with one of the highest authorities,

to find any animal which natural selection should not grant an indefinite period of as all organs being are striving to seize on each place in the economy of nature if any species does not become modified and improved in a corresponding degree with its competitors, it will be exterminated. Unless favourable circumstances be maintained by some at least of the offspring, nothing can be effected by natural selection. The tendency to regression may often be checked or prevented with the best advantage by selection. The prepotent man from a family by selection numerous domestic races, why should it prevail against natural selection?

In the case of methodical selection, the breeder selects for some definite object, and if the

lieve that it is a general law of nature that no organic being fertilises itself for a perpetuity of generations but that a cross with another individual is occasionally—perhaps at long intervals of time—indispensable

On the belief that this is a law of nature we can I think understand several large classes of facts such as the following which on any other view are inexplicable Every hybridizer knows how unfavourable exposure to wet is to the fertilisation of a flower yet what a multitude of flowers have their anthers and stigmas fully exposed to the weather! If an occasional cross be indispensable notwithstanding that the plant's own anthers and pistil stand so near each other as almost to insure self fertilisation the fullest freedom for the entrance of pollen from another individual will explain the above state of exposure of the organs Many flowers on the other hand have their organs of fructification closely enclosed as in the great papilionaceous or pea family but these almost invariably present beautiful and curious adaptations in relation to the visits of insects So necessary are the visits of bees to many papilionaceous flowers that their fertility is greatly diminished if these visits be prevented Now it is scarcely possible for insects to fly from flower and flower and not to carry pollen from one to the other to the great good of the plant. Insects act like a camel hair pencil and it is sufficient to ensure fertilisation just to touch with the same brush the anthers of one flower and then the stigma of another but it must not be supposed that bees would thus produce a multitude of hybrids between distinct species for if a plant's own pollen and that from another species are placed on the same stigma, the former is so prepotent that it invariably and completely destroys as has been shown by Gartner the influence of the foreign pollen

When the stamens of a flower suddenly spring towards the pistil or slowly move one after the other towards it, the contrivance seems adapted solely to ensure self fertilisation and no doubt it is useful for this end but the agency of insects is often required to cause the stamens to spring forward as Kolreuter has shown to be the case with the barberry and in this very genus, which seems to have a special contrivance for self fertilisation it is well known that, if closely allied forms or varieties are planted near each other it is hardly possible to raise pure seedlings, so largely do they naturally cross In numerous

other cases, far from self fertilisation being favoured there are special contrivances which effectually prevent the stigma receiving pollen from its own flower as I could show from the works of Sprengel and others as well as from my own observations for instance in *Lobelia fulgens* there is a really beautiful and elaborate contrivance by which all the infinitely numerous pollen granules are swept out of the conjoined anthers of each flower before the stigma of that individual flower is ready to receive them and as this flower is never visited at least in my garden by insects it never sets a seed though by placing pollen from one flower on the stigma of another I raise plenty of seedlings Another species of *Lobelia* which is visited by bees seeds freely in my garden In very many other cases though there is no special mechanical contrivance to prevent the stigma receiving pollen from the same flower yet as Sprengel and more recently Hildebrand and others have shown and as I can confirm either the anthers burst before the stigma is ready for fertilisation or the stigma is ready before the pollen of that flower is ready so that these so named dichogamous plants have in fact separated sexes and must habitually be crossed So it is with the reciprocally dimorphic and trimorphic plants previously alluded to How strange are these facts! How strange that the pollen and stigmatic surface of the same flower though placed so

these facts explained on the view of an occasional cross with a distinct individual being advantageous or indispensable!

If several varieties of the cabbage, radish onion and of some other plants be allowed to seed near each other a large majority of the seedlings thus raised turn out as I have found mongrels for instance I raised 233 seedling cabbages from some plants of different varieties growing near each other and of these only 78 were true to their kind and some even of these were not perfectly true Yet the pistil of each cabbage flower is surrounded not only by its own six stamens but by those of the many other flowers on the same plant and the pollen of each flower readily gets on its own stigma without insect agency for I have found that plants carefully protected from insects produce the full number of pods. How then comes it that such a vast number of the seedlings are mongrelized It must arise from the

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*Circumstances favourable for the production
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individuals be allowed freely to intercross his work will completely fail. But when many men without intending to alter the breed have a nearly common standard of perfection and all try to procure and breed from the best animals improvement surely but slowly follows from this unconscious process of selection notwithstanding that there is no separation of selected individuals. Thus it will be under nature for within a confined area with some place in the natural polity not perfectly occupied all the individuals varying in the right direction though in different degrees will tend to be preserved. But if the area be large its several districts will almost certainly present different conditions of life and then if the same species undergoes modification in different districts the newly formed varieties will intercross on the confines of each. But we shall see in the sixth chapter that intermediate varieties inhabiting intermediate districts will in the long run generally be supplanted by one of the adjoining varieties. Interbreeding will chiefly affect those animals which unite for each birth and wander much and which do not breed at a very quick rate. Hence with animals of this nature for instance birds varieties will generally be confined to separated countries and thus I find to be the case

far more efficiently with those animals which unite for each birth but as already stated we have reason to believe that occasional intercrosses take place with all animals and plants. Even if these take place only at long intervals of time the young thus produced will gain so much in vigour and fertility over the offspring from long continued self-fertilisation that they will have a better chance of surviving and propagating their kind and thus in the long run the influence of crosses even at rare intervals will be great. With respect to organic beings extremely low in the scale which do not propagate sexually nor conjugate and which cannot possibly intercross uniformity of character can be retained by them under the same conditions of life only through the principle of inheritance and through natural selection which will destroy any individual departing from the proper type. If the conditions of life change and the form undergoes modification uniformity of character can be given to the modified offspring solely by natural selection preserving similar favourable variations.

Isolation also is an important element in the modification of species through natural selection. In a confined or isolated area, if not very large the organic and inorganic conditions of life will generally be almost uniform so that natural selection will tend to modify all the varying individuals of the same species in the same manner. Interbreeding with the inhabitants of the surrounding districts will also be thus prevented. Moritz Wagner has lately published an interesting essay on this subject and has shown that the service rendered by isolation in preventing crosses between newly formed varieties is probably greater even than I supposed. But from reasons already assigned I can by no means agree with this naturalist that migration and isolation are necessary elements for the formation of new species. The importance of isolation is likewise great in preventing after any physical change in the conditions such as of climate elevation of the land &c. the immigration of better adapted organisms and thus new places in the natural economy of the district will be left open to be filled up by the modification of the old inhabitants. Lastly isolation will give time for a new variety to be improved at a slow rate and this may sometimes be of much importance. If however an isolated area be very small either from being surrounded by barriers or from having very

on any one spot and might there maintain itself in a body and afterwards spread so that the individuals of the new variety would chiefly cross together. On this principle nurserymen always prefer saving seed from a large body of plants as the chance of interbreeding

always eliminate the effects of natural selection for I can bring forward a considerable body of facts showing that within the same area two varieties of the same animal may long remain distinct from haunting different stations from breeding at slightly different seasons or from the individuals of each variety preferring to pair together.

Interbreeding plays a very important part in nature by keeping the individuals of the same species or of the same variety true and uniform in character. It will obviously thus act

pecter physical conditions, the total number of the inhabitants will be small and this will retard the production of new species through natural selection, by decreasing the chances of favourable variations arising.

The mere lapse of time by itself does nothing, either for or against natural selection. I state this because it has been erroneously asserted that the element of time has been assumed by me to play an all-important part in the formation of species, as if all the forms of life

as given, and special variations arising and of their being selected, accumulated, and fixed. It likewise tends to increase the direct action of the physical conditions of life in relation to the constitution of each organism.

If we turn to nature to test the truth of these remarks, and look at a small isolated area, such as an oceanic island, although the number of species inhabiting it is small, as we shall see in our chapter on Geographical Distribution, that of these species a very large proportion are endemics—that is, have been produced there and nowhere else in the world. Hence an oceanic island at first sight seems to have been highly favourable for the production of new species. But we may thus deceive ourselves, for to ascertain whether a small isolated area, or a large open area like a continent has been most favourable for the production of new organic forms, we ought to make the comparison within equal times and this we are incapable of doing.

Although isolation is of great importance in the production of new species, on the whole I am inclined to believe that largeness of area is still more important, especially for the production of species which shall prove capable of enduring a long period, and of spreading widely. Throughout a great and open area, not only will there be better chance of favourable variations arising from the large number of individuals of the same species there supported, but the conditions of life are much more complex from the large number of already existing species and if some of these many species become modified and improved, others will have to be improved in correspondence, or they will be exterminated. Each new form, also, as soon as it has been much improved, will be able to prevail over the less and continuous area, and will thus

come into competition with many other forms. Moreover great areas, though not continuous, will often, owing to former oscillations of level, have existed in broken condition so that the good effects of isolation will generally to a certain extent, have concurred. Finally I conclude that, although small isolated areas have been in some respects highly favourable for the production of new species, yet that the course of modification will generally have been more rapid in large areas and what is more important, that the new forms produced on large areas, which already have been victorious over many competitors, will be those that will spread most widely and will give rise to the greatest number of new varieties and species. They will thus play a more important part in the changing history of the organic world.

In accordance with this we can, perhaps, understand some facts which will be again alluded to in our chapter on Geographical Distribution for instance the fact that the productions of the smaller continent of Australia are yielding before those of the larger Euro-Asiatic area. Thus, also, it is that continental productions have everywhere become so largely naturalised on islands. On a small island the race for life will have been less severe and therefore will have been less modification and less extermination. Hence we can understand how it is that the flora of Madagascar, according to O. Wald Heer resembles to a certain extent the extinct tertiary flora of Europe. All fresh water basins, taken together make a small area compared with that of the sea or of the land. Consequently the competition between fresh water productions will have been less severe than elsewhere new forms will have been then more slowly produced and old forms more slowly exterminated. And it is in fresh water basins that we find seven genera of Ganoid fishes, remnants of a once preponderant order and in fresh water we find some of the most anomalous forms now known in the world as the Ornithorhynchus and Lepidosiren which, like fossils, connect to certain extent orders at present widely separated in the natural scale. These anomalous forms may be called living fossils they have endured to the present day from having inhabited a confined area, and from having been exposed to less varied, and therefore less severe, competition.

To sum up, as far as the extreme intricacy of the subject permits, the circumstances favourable and unfavourable for the reduction

of new species through natural selection I conclude that for terrestrial productions a large continental area which has undergone many oscillations of level will have been the most favourable for the production of many new forms of life fitted to endure for a long time and to spread widely. Whilst the area existed as a continent the inhabitants will have been numerous in individuals and kinds and will have been subjected to severe competition. When converted by subsidence into large separate islands there will still have existed many individuals of the same species on each island intercrossing on the confines of the range of each new species will have been checked after physical changes of any kind immigration will have been prevented so that new places in the polity of each island will have had to be filled up by the modification of the old inhabitants and time will have been allowed for the varieties in each to become well modified and perfected. When by renewed elevation the islands were reconverted into a continental area there will again have been very severe competition the most favoured or improved varieties will have been enabled to spread there will have been much extinction of the less improved forms and the relative proportional numbers of the various inhabitants of the reunited continent will again have been changed and again there will have been a fair field for natural selection to improve still further the inhabitants and thus to produce new species.

That natural selection generally acts with extreme slowness I fully admit. It can act only when there are places in the natural polity of a district which can be better occupied by the modification of some of its existing inhabitants. The occurrence of such places will often depend on physical changes which generally take place very slowly and on the immigration of better adapted forms being prevented. As some few of the old inhabitants become modified the mutual relations of others will often be disturbed and this will create new places ready to be filled up by better adapted forms, but all this will take place very slowly. Although all the individuals of the same species differ in some slight degree from each other it would often be long before differences of the right nature in various parts of the organisation might occur. The result would often be greatly retarded by free intercrossing. Many will exclaim that these several causes are amply sufficient to neutralise the

power of natural selection I do not believe so. But I do believe that natural selection will generally act very slowly only at long intervals of time and only on a few of the inhabitants of the same region. I further believe that these slow intermittent results accord well with what geology tells us of the rate and manner at which the inhabitants of the world have changed.

Slow though the process of selection may be if feeble man can do much by artificial selection I can see no limit to the amount of change to the beauty and complexity of the coadaptations between all organic beings one with another and with their physical conditions of life which may have been effected in the long course of time through nature's power of selection that is by the survival of the fittest.

Extinction caused by Natural Selection

This subject will be more fully discussed in our chapter on Geology but it must here be alluded to from being intimately connected with natural selection. Natural selection acts solely through the preservation of variations in some way advantageous which consequently endure. Owing to the high geometrical rate of increase of all organic beings each area is already fully stocked with inhabitants and it follows from this that as the favoured forms increase in number so generally will the less

by few individuals will run a good chance of utter extinction during great fluctuations in the nature of the seasons or from a temporary increase in the number of its enemies. But we may go further than this for as new forms are produced unless we admit that specific forms can go on indefinitely increasing in number many old forms must become extinct. That the number of specific forms has not indefinitely increased geology plainly tells us and we shall presently attempt to show why it is that the number of species throughout the world has not become immeasurably great.

We have seen that the species which are most numerous in individuals have the best

— 2 —
dominant species which offer the greatest number of recorded varieties. Hence, rare species

will be less quickly modified improved within any given period they will consequently be beaten in the race for life by the modified and improved descendants of the common species.

From these several considerations I think it inevitable follows, that as species in the

species, present slight and ill-defined differences. Mere chance as we may call it, might cause a tendency to differ in some character from its parents, and the offspring of this variety again to differ from its parent in the very same character and in a greater degree but this alone would never account for so habitually and largely a degree of difference as that between the species of the same genus.

suffer most and which has been in the chapter the struggle for existence that it is the most closely allied forms,—varieties of the same species, and species of the same genus or of related genera,—will from long nearly the same true type constitute, and habits, form all come into the same rest competition

hundred, and tend to exterminate them. We see the same process of extermination amongst our domesticated products, through the selection of improved form by man. Many curious instances could be given of this. I will quickly name breeds of little sheep and the animals, and not of flowers, take the place of wild and inferior kinds. I have known historically how with the antelope black cattle were displaced by the longhorns, and that these were wiped out by the short horns (I quote the words of a gentleman who was) as if by some malignant pestilence.

Differences of Character

The principle which I have designated by this term is of the highest importance and plains, as I believe several important facts. In the first place, varieties, through long kindredness, though highly some but still of the character of species—as shown by the helplessness of the man as I was to rank them—yet certainly differ far less from each other than do good and distinct species. Nevertheless, according to my views, varieties are peculiar in the process of formation, are as I have called them very species-like, and do the least difference between varieties become augmented to the greatest difference between species. That this does habitually happen we must infer from most of the numerous species throughout nature representing well marked differences which are varieties, the supposed prototypes and parents of future well marked

If related cattle race and cart horses, in several breeds of pigeons, &c. could never have been effected by the mere chance accumulation of similar variations during many successive generations. In practice a fencer is, for instance, struck by pigeon having a slightly shorter beak another fancier true to the pigeon he has in a thoroughbred and in the acknowledged principle that fancier do not and will not admire a medium standard but like extremes, they both go on (as has actually occurred with the b-breds of the tumbler pigeon) choose good breeding from blood with longer and longer beaks or with shorter and shorter beaks. Again we may suppose that at a early period of history the man for a native no direct required swift horses, whilst the use of another required strong and heavier horses. The early differences would be very slight but, in the course of time from the continued selection of swift horses in the case and of strong horses in the other the difference would become great and would be continued as forming two sub-breeds. Ultimately after the lapse of centuries, the sub-breed would become continued into two well-established and distinct breeds. As the differences became greater the inferior animals with intermediate characters, being the worst of the two groups would not have been selected for breeding and would thus have tended to disappear. If we then see in man products as the action of what may be called the principle of divergence causing differences, the first barely appreciable tendency to increase and the best distinct groups in character both from each other and from their common parent.

But when I was asked, can any analogical principle apply in nature I believe I can and do apply most efficiently (though it was a long time before I saw how) from the simple

circumstance that the more diversified the descendants from any one species become in structure constitution and habits by so much will they be better enabled to seize on many and widely diversified places in the polity of nature and so be enabled to increase in numbers

We can clearly discern this in the case of animals with simple habits Take the case of a carnivorous quadruped of which the number that can be supported in any country has long ago arrived at its full average If its natural power of increase be allowed to act it can succeed in increasing (the country not undergoing any change in conditions) only by its varying descendants seizing on places at present occupied by other animals some of them for instance being enabled to feed on new kinds of prey either dead or alive some inhabiting new stations climbing trees frequenting water and some perhaps becoming less carnivorous The more diversified in habits and structure the descendants of our carnivorous animals become the more places they will be enabled to occupy What applies to one animal will apply throughout all time to all animals—that is if they vary—for otherwise natural selection can effect nothing So it will be with plants It has been experimentally proved that if a plot of ground be sown with one species of grass and a similar plot be sown with several distinct genera of grasses a greater number of plants and a greater weight of dry herbage can be raised in the latter than in the former case The same has been found to hold good when one variety and several mixed varieties of wheat have been sown on equal spaces of ground Hence if any one species of grass were to go on varying and the varieties were continually selected which differed from each other in the same manner though in a very slight degree as do the distinct species and genera of grasses a greater number of individual plants of this species, including its modified descendants would succeed in living on the same piece of ground And we know that each species and each variety of grass is annually sowing almost countless seeds and is thus striving as it may be said to the utmost to increase in number Consequently in the course of many thousand generations the most distinct varieties of any one species of grass would have the best chance of succeeding and of increasing in numbers and thus of supplanting the less distinct varieties and varieties, when ren-

dered very distinct from each other take the rank of species

The truth of the principle that the greatest amount of life can be supported by great diversification of structure is seen under many natural circumstances In an extremely small area especially if freely open to immigration and where the contest between individual and individual must be very severe we always find great diversity in its inhabitants For instance I found that a piece of turf three feet by four in size which had been exposed for many years to exactly the same conditions supported twenty species of plants and these belonged to eighteen genera and to eight orders which shows how much these plants differed from each other So it is with the plants and insects on small and uniform islets also in small ponds of fresh water Farmers find that they can raise most food by a rotation of plants belonging to the most different orders nature follows what may be called a simultaneous rotation Most of the animals and plants which live close round any small piece of ground could live on it (supposing its nature not to be in any way peculiar) and may be said to be striving to the utmost to live there but it is seen that where they come into the closest competition the advantages of diversification of structure with the accompanying differences of habit and constitution determine that the inhabitants which thus jostle each other most closely shall as a general rule belong to what we call different genera and orders

The same principle is seen in the naturalisation of plants through man's agency in foreign lands It might have been expected that the plants which would succeed in becoming naturalised in any land would generally have been closely allied to the indigenes for these are commonly looked at as specially created and adapted for their own country It might also perhaps have been expected that naturalised plants would have belonged to a few groups

in his great and admirable work that florists gain by naturalisation proportionally with the number of the native genera and species far more in new genera than in new species To give a single instance in the last edition of Dr Asa Gray's *Manual of the Flora of the Northern United States* 60 naturalized plants are enumerated and these belong to 162

genera. We thus see that these naturalised plants are of equal diversified nature. They differ more or less largely, from the originals, for out of the 16 naturalised genera, no less than 100 genera are not the originals, and thus large proportional addition is made to the genera now living in the United States.

But considering the nature of the plants or animals which have in an country truly led successful, the things and has there become naturalised, we may gain some crude idea in that manner some of the natives would have to be modified, in order to gain an advantage over their competitors and we may at least say that diversification of structure, amounting to new genera differences, would be profitable to them.

The advantages of diversification of structure

Miss Edwards, a physiologist doubts that a stomach adapted to digest vegetable matter alone, or flesh alone draw most nutriment from these substances. So in the general economy of an land, the more varied and perfect the animals and plants are diversified of different habits of life so will greater number of individuals be capable of their supporting themselves. A set of animals, with their organisation but little diversified, could hardly compete with a set more perfectly diversified in structure. It may be doubted, for instance whether the Australian marsupials, which are divided into groups differing but little from each other and feebly representing, as Mr. Waterhouse and others have remarked, our carnivorous, ruminant, and rodent mammals, could successfully compete with these well-organized classes. In the Australian mammals, we see the process of diversification in an early and incomplete stage of development.

The Probable Effects of the Action of Natural Selection through the Emergence of Character and Extinction of the Deficient of Certain Classes

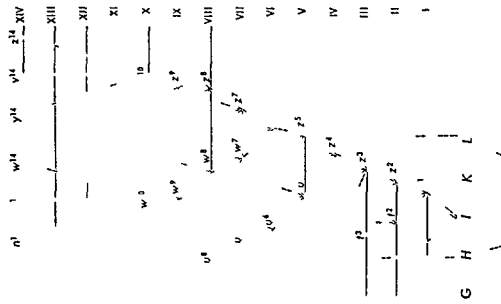
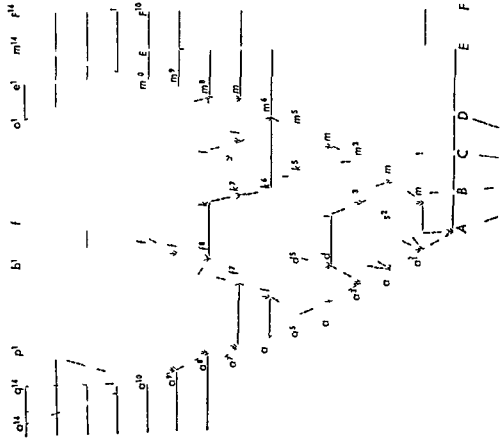
After the foregoing discussion, which has been much compressed, we may assume that the most successful descendant of an original species will succeed so much the better as it becomes more diversified in structure and are thus enabled to encroach on places occupied by

other beings. Now let us see how this principle of benefit being derived from divergence of character combined with the principles of natural selection and of extinction, tends to act.

The accompanying diagram will aid us in understanding this rather perplexing subject. Let A to L represent the species of a genus large in its own country these species are supposed to resemble each other in unequal degrees, as is so generally the case in nature, and as is represented in the diagram by the letters standing at unequal distances. I have said a large genus, because as we saw in the second chapter, in a large more species vary in large genera than in small genera and the various species of the large genera present a greater number of varieties. We have, also, seen that the species, which are the commonest and the most widely diffused, vary more than the rare and restricted species. Let (1) be a common, widely-diffused and vary in species, belong to a genus large in its own country. The branches and diverging dotted lines of unequal lengths proceeding from (1) may represent its arising offsprings. The nations are supposed to be extremely slight, but of the most diversified nature they are supposed all to appear simultaneously but often at long intervals of time no are

lected. And here the importance of the principle of benefit derived from divergence of character comes in for this will generally lead to the most different or divergent nation (represented by the dotted line) being preserved and accumulated by natural selection. When a dotted line reaches one of the horizontal lines, and is there marked by small numbered letter a sufficient amount of variation is supposed to have been accumulated to form it into a well-marked variety such as we would be thought worthy of record in systematic works.

The intervals between the horizontal lines in the diagram may represent each a thousand generations. After a thousand generations, species (1) is supposed to have produced two fairly well-marked varieties, namely, A and B. These two varieties will generally stand by the same conditions which made their parents variable and they tend now to stability in itself by hereditary consequence the will likewise tend to vary and



commonly in nearly the same manner as did their parents. Moreover these two varieties, being modified forms, will tend to inherit those advantages which made their parent (A) more numerous than most of the other inhabitants of the same country. They also partake of those more general advantages which made the genus to which the parent-species belonged, a large genus in its own country. And all these circumstances are favourable to the production of new varieties.

If, then, these two varieties be variable, the most divergent of their variations will generally be preserved during the next thousand generations. And after this interval, variety is supposed in the diagram to have produced variety which will, owing to the principle of divergence, differ more from (A) than did variety A. Variety A is supposed to have produced two varieties, namely a^1 and a^2 , differing from each other and more considerably from their common parent (A). We may continue the process by similar steps for any length of time. Some of the varieties, after each thousand generations, producing only a single variety but in more and more modified condition, some producing two or three varieties, and some failing to produce any. Thus the varieties or modified descendants of the common parent (A) will generally go on increasing in number and diverging in character. In the diagram the process is represented up to the ten thousandth generation, and under condensed and simplified form up to the fourteen-thousandth generation.

But I must here remark that I do not suppose that the process goes on so regularly as is represented in the diagram, though it will be made somewhat irregular nor that it goes on continuously. It is far more probable that each form remains for long periods unaltered, and then again undergoes modification. Nor do I suppose that the most divergent varieties are invariably preserved. Many may often long endure, and may or may not produce more than one modified descendant for natural selection will always act according to the nature of the places which are either unoccupied or not perfectly occupied by other beings, and thus will depend on infinitely complex relations. But as a general rule the more diversified in structure the descendants from any one species can be rendered, the more places they will be enabled to seize on, and the more their modified progeny will increase. In our diagram the line of succession is broken at

regular intervals by small numbered letters marking the successive forms which have become sufficiently distinct to be recorded as varieties. But these breaks are imaginary and might have been inserted anywhere, after intervals long enough to allow the accumulation of a considerable amount of divergent variation.

As all the modified descendants from a common and widely-diffused species, belonging to a large genus, will tend to partake of the same advantages

this is represented in the diagram by the several divergent branches proceeding from (A). The modified offspring from the later and more highly improved branches in the lines of descent, will, it is probable, often take the place of, and so destroy the earlier and less improved branches. This is represented in the diagram by some of the lower branches not reaching to the upper horizontal lines. In some cases no doubt the process of modification will be confined to a single line of descent and the number of modified descendants will not be increased although the amount of divergent modification may have been augmented. This case would be represented in the diagram, if all the lines proceeding from (A) were removed, excepting that from a^1 to a^{14} . In the same way the English race-horse and English pointer have apparently both gone on slowly diverging in character from their original stocks, without the having given off any fresh branches or races.

After ten thousand generations, species (A) is supposed to have produced three forms, a^1 , a^2 , and a^3 , which, from having diverged in character during the successive generations, will have come to differ largely but perhaps unequally from each other and from their common parent. If we suppose the amount of change between each horizontal line in our diagram to be excessively small, these three forms may still be only well-marked varieties but we have only to suppose the steps in the process of modification to be more numerous or greater in amount, to convert these three forms into well-defined or at least into distinct species. Thus the diagram illustrates the steps by which the small differences distinguishing varieties are increased into the large differences distinguishing species. By continuing the same process for a great number of generations (as shown in the diagram in a condensed and simplified manner)

we get eight pecies marked by the letters between a^{11} and m^{11} all descended from (A). Thus as I believe species are multiplied and genera are formed

In a large genus it is probable that more than one species would vary. In the diagram I have assumed that a second species (I) has produced by analogous steps after ten thousand generations either two well marked varieties (10^{10} and 2^{10}) or two species according to the amount of change supposed to be represented between the horizontal lines. After fourteen thousand generations six new pecies marked by the letters n^{11} to w^{11} are supposed to have been produced. In any genus the species which are already very different in character from each other will generally tend to produce the greatest number of modified descendants for these will have the best chance of seizing on new and widely different places in the polity of nature hence in the diagram I have chosen the extreme species (I) and the nearly extreme species (I) as those which have largely varied and have given rise to new varieties and species. The other nine species (marked by capital letters) of our

played an important part. As in each fully stocked country natural selection necessarily acts by the selected form having some advantage in the struggle for life over other forms, there will be a constant tendency in the improved descendants of any one species to supplant and exterminate in each stage of descent their predecessors and their original progeni

lated to each other in habits constitution and structure. Hence all the intermediate forms between the earlier and later states that is between the less and more improved states of the same species, as well as the original parent species itself will generally tend to become extinct. So it probably will be with many whole collateral lines of descent which will be conquered by later and improved lines. If however the modified offspring of a species get into some distinct country or become quickly adapted to some quite new station in

which offspring and progenitor do not come into competition both may continue to exist

If then our diagram be assumed to represent a considerable amount of modification species (I) and all the earlier varieties will have become extinct being replaced by eight new pecies (a^{11} to m^{11}) and pecies (I) will be replaced by six (n^{11} to w^{11}) new pecies

But we may go further than this. The original species of our genus were supposed to resemble each other in unequal degrees, as is so generally the case in nature species (I) being more nearly related to B C and D than to the other species and pecies (I) more to G H K L than to the others. These two species (I) and (I) were also supposed to be very common and widely diffused pecies, so that they must originally have had some advantage over most of the other species of the genus. Their modified descendants, fourteen in number at the fourteen thousandth generation will probably have inherited some of the same advantages they have also been modified and improved in a diversified manner at each stage of descent so as to have become adapted to many related places in the natural economy of their country. It seems therefore extremely probable that they will have taken the places of and thus exterminated not only their parents (A) and (I) but likewise some of the original pecies which were most nearly related to their parents. Hence very few of the original species will have transmitted offspring to the fourteen thousandth generation. We may suppose that only one (F) of the two pecies (L and K) which were least closely related to the other nine original pecies has transmitted descendants to this late stage of descent.

The new species in our diagram descended from the original eleven pecies will now be fifteen in number. Owing to the divergent tendency of natural selection the extreme amount of difference in character between species a^{11} and w^{11} will be much greater than that between the most distinct of the original eleven pecies. The new pecies moreover will be allied to each other in a widely different manner. Of the eight descendants from (I) the three marked a q p will be nearly

distinct from the three first named pecies and lastly o e and m will be nearly related one to the other but, from having

NATURAL SELECTION—SURVIVAL OF THE FITTEST

the first commencement of the process of modification, will be widely different from the other species, and may constitute a sub-genus.

The six descendants from (F) will form two sub-genera. But as the original species (F) differed largely from (f) and gave early to the extreme of the original genus, the six descendants from (F) will owe to inheritance also a considerable from the light descendants from (f) the two groups, moreover, are supposed to have diverged in different directions. The intermediate species, also (and this is very

the art is crucial in including extinct remains which now come to our knowledge on

and we can understand this fact to in that species lived at various remote points when the branching line of descent had diverged.

I see no reason to limit the process of modification as now explained to the first generation. If in the diagram we suppose the amount of change represented by each line to be proportional to the amount of modification.

be given
marked
m

genera, as distinct sub-families

Thus it is, as I believe, that two main genera are produced by descent with modification, from two main representative families. And the two main representative families are supposed to be descended from some one species of an original genus. In the diagram this is indicated by the broken line, being the principal lines, converging in a branch and representing a species, the proposed progeny of several well-known genera and groups.

It is rather what I reflect from the main line the character of the species from which the proposed to have diverged may be inferred. But the character of the form (F) the main red line red line light line. I think this case is affinitive to the first two species will be for current and recent line. Being descended from form which too between the parent species (f) and (F) was supposed to be united and unknown will be some degree of modification. Character between the two groups descended from the set species. But as the set species group has given the character of the group from the type of the parents, the new species (F) will be directed towards the between the main but rather between the types of the two groups and the result will be able to all the case before us.

The diagram each horizontal line has both right and left proposed to represent the usual geometric ratios, but actually represent a million or more geometric ratios. It may also represent sections of the necessary traits of

descendants, according to the amount of modification supposed to be represented in the diagram. And the two new families, orders, are descended from two species of the original genus, and these are supposed to be descended from some common ancestor unknown.

We have seen that in each country at the present time the species belonging to the lower genera which oftenest present in the present species. Thus, deer might have been expected from the natural selection acts through the form of the genus and advantage of the form in the struggle for existence will easily be the one which already has some advantage and the largeness of any group shows that the species have inherited from common ancestors some advantage in common. Hence the struggle of the production of new and modified descendants will mainly be between the large groups which are all trying to increase in number. One large group will likely contain the large group reduced to numbers, and the increase is chance of the extinction and improvement. Within the same large group the least and more highly perfected groups, from branch to branch and seizing upon every new place, the policy of Nature will constantly tend to supplant and destroy the older and less improved sub-groups. Small and broken groups and sub-groups will finally

disappear. Looking to the future we can predict that the groups of organic beings which are now large and triumphant and which are least broken up that is which have as yet suffered least extinction will for a long period continue to increase. But which groups will ultimately prevail no man can predict for we know that many groups formerly most extensively developed have now become extinct. Looking still more remotely to the future we may predict that owing to the continued and steady increase of the larger groups a multitude of smaller groups will become utterly extinct and leave no modified descendants and consequently that of the species living at any one period extremely few will transmit descendants to a remote futurity. I shall have to return to this subject in the chapter on Classification but I may add that according to this view extremely few of the more ancient species have transmitted descendants to the present day and as all the descendants of the same species form a class we can understand how it is that there exist so few classes in each main division of the animal and vegetable kingdoms. Although few of the most ancient species have left modified descendants yet at remote geological periods the earth may have been almost as well peopled with species of many genera, families, orders and classes as at the present time.

*On the Degree to which Organisation
tends to advance*

Natural Selection acts exclusively by the preservation and accumulation of variations which are beneficial under the organic and inorganic conditions to which each creature is exposed at all periods of life. The ultimate result is that each creature tends to become more and more improved in relation to its conditions. This improvement inevitably leads to the gradual advancement of the organisation of the greater number of living beings.

As in the vertebrata the degree of intellect and an approach in structure to man clearly come into play. It might be thought that the amount of change which the various parts and organs pass through in their development from the embryo to maturity would suffice as a standard of comparison but there are cases as with certain parasitic crustaceans, in which several

parts of the structure become less perfect so that the mature animal cannot be called higher than its larva. Von Baer's standard seems the most widely applicable and the best, namely the amount of differentiation of the parts of the same organic being in the adult state as I should be inclined to add and their specialisation for different function or as Milne Edwards would express it the completeness of the division of physiological labour. But we shall see how obscure this subject is if we look for instance to fishes amongst which some naturalists rank those as highest which like the sharks approach nearest to amphibians whilst other naturalists rank the common bony or teleostean fishes as the highest inasmuch as they are most strictly fish-like and differ most from the other vertebrate classes. We see still more plainly the obscurity of the subject by turning to plants amongst which the standard of intellect of course quite excluded and here some botanists rank those plants as highest which have every organ as sepal petals stamens and pistils fully developed in each flower whereas other botanists probably with more truth look at the plants which have their several organs much modified and reduced in number as the highest.

If we take as the standard of high organisation the amount of differentiation and specialisation of the several organs in each being when adult (and this will include the advancement of the brain for intellectual purposes) natural selection clearly leads towards this standard for all physiologists admit that the specialisation of organs inasmuch as in this state they perform their functions better is an advantage to each being and hence the accumulation of variations tending towards specialisation is within the scope of natural selection. On the other hand we can see bearing in mind that all organic beings are striving to increase at a high ratio and to exert on every unoccupied or less well occupied place in the economy of nature that it is quite possible for natural selection gradually to fit a being to a situation in which several organs would be superfluous or useless in such cases there would be retrogression in the scale of organisation. Whether organisation on the whole has actually advanced from the remote geological periods to the present day will be more conveniently discussed in our chapter on Geological Succession.

But it may be objected that if all organic beings thus tend to rise in the scale how is it

that low each l more easily than planted and extended the low Lan rel, be belie d in an unat and in vitabl tend nev t and perfection all rean beings, seems t l f l t l difficult so strong, l that be was led t ppose that n w and simpl f rns re co tinually being produced b spo taneous g n ration See ce has not as y t pro ed t l truth of this bel f l t r th f t r m re cal On ur

we are sari includ progress d l p m t—t nly tak tan of such an tio as arise and are be ficial t achi re t re nder is comple relat us of life And t may be asked hat ad tag far as w can see ould t be to an inf sorian an m kul—t an intestinal rm—o t an aril w rin to be hgl l caused If t w re n ad antag these f rns would be left, by nat ral selecti n, unpro ed b t l t l mpro ed, and m l t remain for ind finit ag t th ir prese t lo l coul tio And geok g, t lls that som of the lowest forms, as th nf sori and rhizopods, ha remain d f an xorm period in ari t l prese t l t B t to suppose that most f l t manu tin low f in ha ot th l t ad anced si ce the first da n f l f would be extrem ly rasl for r t rai t w l as l seeted som of th bet g sora ked r lo th sel m thia bee truck w th l really non-dro and bea t f l rganisat n.

Nari th sam remarks are plic ble f look t the d f rent grad of oer nisati n th t l sam gre t gro p f in tance in the rt brata, t the co-exist nce f in m mal and fish—am t mammalia, t the co t nce of man and th n the hynel us—mon, t fishe to the co-exist nce of th shark and th lancelet (An pl) wh h latter fish in the extreme simplicit of t tract re pproaches the m riel ral classes. B t mammals as f fish hardly com into com petition with eac' other th ad ancement f the hole class of mammals, o of certain members in this las to t l highest grad ould not lead to their taking the place of fishe. Phrasol gists t ber that th brain must be bathed by warm blood to be fighl

acti e and this req re acrial re p ratio so th t warm blooded mammal when nhabiting the w t le und r a disad antag i ha ing t come co tin ally t th urface to bre th With fishes, m mber f the shark faml would ot te d t pplant t l lancelet f r t l lancelet, as I hea from Fritz Muller has as sol companion and comp t t on the l ar ren sand sl re f South Brazil, an an mal us ann l d Th three lowest i rs f mammals, nam ly mare pials, ed ntata, and rodents, co-exit in South America in the sam reg n w th numero s m uk s, and probably t r f re t t l w l achi oth Alth gh ganisa t n, on th whol m ha ad need and be t l l ad ancing t l ro gh t the w l d v t th scal will always prese t many d orce of per fect f th hgl ad ancement of ce tain wh le cl as s, r of erta m mb fe ch lass, doe n t at all nece sari l ad to the exti t on of those group w th which th v d n t nt nt cl se compett In som cases, n w h l l reaft see l w l ganised f rns

us, " se re competiti n and wh re their scanty n mbers ha ret rded the chance f f v ur bl ar ti us arising. Kunal I belie that many lowly rganised f rns n st thro gh t th w l d from an us causes. In some case an ti ns in l idual luff rence f f urabl nature ma ha risen f natural select n to act n and ccumulate In n ase probably has tune sliced f th utu t poss bl am t f d l p m t. In som few cases th re has been what w mu t call retro reas n f organisat n. B t l mai cause l n the

rgan beings, we ma ble presented th mplest t ture l t has bee asked co ld th first t p the ad ancem nt f f re t t i f part ha arise M Herbert Spe cr ld probabl answ that, as soon as s pl unicellular rganism cam by growth o d r s t be compo nded f sev eral cells, becam ttach d to an s pport ing surface, l law that hom log us units of any rd become d f f re tiated in proportion as their relations to incid t f rees become

different would come into action. But as we have no facts to guide us speculation on the subject is almost useless. It is however an error to suppose that there would be no struggle for existence and consequently no natural selection until many forms had been produced. Variations in a single species inhabiting an isolated station might be beneficial and thus the whole mass of individuals might be modified or two distinct forms might arise. But, as I remarked towards the close of the Introduction no one ought to feel surprise at much remaining as yet unexplained on the origin of species if we make due allowance for our profound ignorance on the mutual relations of the inhabitants of the world at the present time and still more so during past ages.

Convergence of Character

Mr H C Watson thinks that I have overrated the importance of divergence of character (in which however he apparently believes) and that convergence as it may be called has likewise played a part. If two species belonging to two distinct though allied genera had both produced a large number of new and divergent forms it is conceivable that these might approach each other so closely that they would have all to be classed under the same

but to convergence a close and general similarity of structure in the modified descendants of widely distinct forms. The shape of a crystal is determined solely by the molecular forces and it is not surprising that dissimilar substances should sometimes assume the same form but with organic beings we should bear in mind that the form of each depends on an infinitude of complex relations namely on the variations which have arisen these being due to causes far too intricate to be followed out — on the nature of the variations which have been preserved or selected and this depends on the surrounding physical conditions and in a still higher degree on the surrounding organisms with which each being has come in to competition — and lastly on inheritance (in itself a fluctuating element) from innumerable progenitors all of which have had their forms determined through equally complex relations. It is incredible that the descendants of two organisms which had originally differed in a marked manner should ever afterwards

converge so closely as to lead to a near approach to identity throughout their whole organisation. If this had occurred we should meet with the same form independently of genetic connection recurring in widely separated geological formations and the balance of evidence is opposed to any such admission.

Mr Watson has also objected that the continued action of natural selection to ether with divergence of character would tend to make an indefinite number of specific forms. As far as mere inorganic conditions are concerned it seems probable that a sufficient number of species would soon become adapted to all considerable diversities of heat moisture &c but I fully admit that the mutual relations of organic beings are more important and as the number of species in any country goes on increasing the organic conditions of life must become more and more complex. Consequently there seems at first sight no limit to the amount of profitable diversification of structure and therefore no limit to the number of species which might be produced. We do not know that even the most prolific area is fully stocked with specific forms at the Cape of Good Hope and in Australia which support such an astonishing number of species many European plants have become naturalised. But geology shows us that from an early part of the tertiary period the number of species of shells and that from the middle part of this same period the number of mammals has not greatly or at all increased. What then checks an indefinite increase in the number of species? The amount of life (I do not mean the number of specific forms) supported on an area must have a limit depending so largely as it does on physical conditions therefore if an area be inhabited by very many species each or nearly each species will be represented by few individuals and such species will be liable to extermination from accidental fluctuations in the nature of the seasons or in the number of their enemies. The process of extermination in such cases would be rapid whereas the production of new species must always be slow. Imagine the extreme case of as many species as individuals in England and the first severe winter or very dry summer would exterminate thousands and of species. Rare species will become rare if the number of species in any country becomes indefinitely increased will on the principle often explained present within a given period few favourable

It is a truly wonderful fact—the wonder of which we are apt to overlook from familiarity—that all animals and all plants throughout all time and space should be related to each other in groups subordinate to groups in the manner which we everywhere behold—namely varieties of the same species most closely related species of the same genus less closely and unequally related forming sections and

orders sub classes and classes. The several subordinate groups in any class cannot be ranked in a single file but seem clustered round points and these round other points and so on in almost endless cycles. If species had been independently created no explanation would have been possible of this kind of classification but it is explained through inheritance and the complex action of natural selection entailing extinction and divergence of character as we have seen illustrated in the diagram.

The affinities of all the beings of the same class have sometimes been represented by a great tree. I believe this simile largely speaks the truth. The green and budding twig may represent existing species and those produced during former years may represent the long succession of extinct species. At each period of growth all the growing twigs have tried to branch out on all sides, and to overtop and kill the surrounding twigs and branches in the same manner as species and groups of species have at all times overmastered other species in the great battle for life. The limbs

divided into great branches, and these into lesser and lesser branches were themselves once when the tree was young budding twigs, and this connection of the former and present buds by ramifying branches may well represent the classification of all extinct and living species in groups subordinate to groups. Of the many twigs which flourished when the tree was a mere bush only two or three now grown into great branches yet survive and bear the other branches so with the species which lived during long past geological periods very few have left living and modified descendants. From the first growth of the tree many a limb and branch has decayed and dropped off and these fallen branches of various size may represent those whole orders families and genera which have now no living representatives and which are known to us only in a fossil state. As we here and there see a thin straggling branch springing from a fork low down in a tree and which by some chance has been favoured and is still alive on its summit so we occasionally see an animal like the *Ornithorhynchus* or *Lepidosiren* which in some small degree connects by its affinities two large branches of life and which has apparently been saved from fatal competition by having inhabited a protected station. As buds give rise by growth to fresh buds and these if vigorous branch out and overtop on all sides many a feeble branch so by generation I believe it has been with the great Tree of Life which fills with its dead and broken branches the crust of the earth and covers the surface with its everbranching and beautiful ramifications.

CHAPTER V

LAWS OF VARIATION

In a sixth or some times spoken as if the variation — so common and multifarious with game beings — depends on the nature and in a lesser degree with the season — were due to chance. This, however, is wholly incorrect. True, but it serves to acknowledge

or as the passage

and most of the occurrences in the history of the animal kingdom, and in the history of the human race, are due to the influence of the environment. The influence of the environment on the development of the individual is a subject which has been discussed in many of the preceding chapters. It is a subject which is of the greatest importance, and one which is of the greatest interest to all who are concerned with the history of the human race. The influence of the environment on the development of the individual is a subject which has been discussed in many of the preceding chapters. It is a subject which is of the greatest importance, and one which is of the greatest interest to all who are concerned with the history of the human race.

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than those of the same species from further north or from a greater depth, but this certainly does not always hold good. Mr. Gould has shown that birds of the same species are more brightly coloured under a clear atmosphere than when living near the coast or on islands, and Wallace has shown that the diversity of the sea affects the colour of insects. Moquin Tandon gives a list of plants which are growing near the sea shore, which are more fleshy than those which are elsewhere. These light-acting organisms are not restricted in as far as the present character is concerned, but they are possessed by the species.

any being, however

but the accumulation of natural selection, and I would think a final act in the conditions of life. Thus, it is well known

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and I have been favoured and preserved in the manner of rats, and I would think

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Instances could be given of similar artifice in produced from the same species under the same conditions, but as different as can well be conceived, and not the least of dissimilarities being produced under apparently the same natural conditions. A number of all instances are known to every naturalist, of people keep getting very tall, although the general tendency is to be shorter. Such conditions as the sea, the high mountains, the direct action of the sun, and the direct action of the sun, are the causes of which we are quite ignorant.

In the case of the development of life, we have said that it is to cause variability, the direct and indirect effects of natural selection, of the conditions of the environment, which thus that any shall receive. But when man is selecting, it is clearly seen that the two elements of change are distinct.

variability is in some manner excited but it is the will of man which accumulates the variations in certain directions and it is this latter agency which answers to the survival of the fittest under nature

Effects of the increased Use and Disuse of Parts as controlled by Natural Selection

From the facts alluded to in the first chapter I think there can be no doubt that use in our domestic animals has strengthened and enlarged certain parts and disuse diminished them and that such modifications are inherited Under free nature we have no standard of comparison by which to judge of the effects of long-continued use or disuse for we know not the parent forms but many animals possess structures which can be best explained by the effects of disuse As Professor Owen has remarked there is no greater anomaly in nature than a bird that cannot fly yet there are several in this state The logger headed duck of South America can only flap along the surface of the water and has its wings in nearly the same condition as the domestic Aylesbury duck it is a remarkable fact that the young birds according to Mr Cunningham can fly while the adults have lost this power As the flight

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inhabiting or which lately inhabited several oceanic islands tenanted by no beast of prey has been caused by disuse The ostrich indeed inhabits continents and is exposed to the

that the progenitor of the ostrich genus had habits like those of the bustard and that as the size and weight of its body were increased during successive generations its legs were used more and its wings less until they became incapable of flight

Kirby has remarked (and I have observed the same fact) that the anterior tarsi or feet, of many male dung feeding beetles are often broken off he examined seventeen specimens in his own collection and not one had even a relic left In the *Onites apelles* the tarsi are so habitually lost, that the insect has been described as not having them In some other genera they are present but in a rudimentary condition In the *Ateuchus* or sacred beetle of the Egyptians, they are totally deficient The evidence that accidental mutilations can be in

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to should make us cautious in denying this tendency Hence it will perhaps be safest to look at the entire absence of the anterior tarsi in *Ateuchus* and their rudimentary condition in some other genera not as cases of inherited mutilations but as due to the effects of long continued disuse for as many dung feeding beetles are generally found with their tarsi lost this must happen early in life therefore the tarsi cannot be of much importance or be much used by these insects

In some cases we might easily put down to disuse modifications of structure which are wholly or mainly due to natural selection Mr Wollaston has discovered the remarkable fact that 900 beetles out of the 1000 species (but more are now known) inhabiting Madeira are so far deficient in wings that they cannot fly and that of the twenty nine endemic genera no less than twenty three have all their species in this condition! Several facts — namely that beetles in many parts of the world are frequently blown to sea and perish that the beetles in Madeira as observed by Mr Wollaston lie much concealed until the wind lulls and the sun shines that the proportion of wingless beetles is larger on the exposed Desertas than in Madeira itself and especially the extraordinary fact so strongly insisted on by Mr Wollaston that certain large groups of beetles elsewhere excessively numerous which absolutely require the use of their wings are here almost entirely absent — these several considerations make me believe that the wingless condition of so many Madeira beetles is mainly due to the action of natural selection combined probably with disuse For during many successive generations each individual beetle which flew least either from its wings having been ever so little less perfectly developed or from indolent habit will have had the wing
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The insects in Madeira which are not ground feeders and which as certain flower feeding coleoptera and lepidoptera, must habitually use their wings to gain their subsistence have as Mr Wollaston says perfect the wings not at all reduced but enlarged This is quite compatible with the action of natural selection

tion. For when a new insect first arrived on the island, the tendency of natural selection to increase or to reduce the wings, would depend on whether a great number of individuals were saved by successfully battling with the winds, or perishing upon the tempest and rarely returning.

virtue. L. AS
the bad swimmers if they had not been able to swim at all and had taken to the wreck.

The eyes of moles and of some brown ground-squirrels are rudimentary in size and in some cases are quite covered by skin and fur. This state of the eyes is probably due to gradual reduction from disuse but aided perhaps by natural selection. So the American brown ground-squirrel, the cottontail, the chipmunk, the

as eyes are certainly not necessary to animals having a subterranean habit, a reduction in their size, with the adhesion of the eyelids and growth of fur, the more the case be an advantage and if so natural selection would aid the effects of disuse.

It is well known that several animals, belonging to the most different classes, which inhabit the caves of Carniola and of the Caves are blind. Some of the crabs the foot talk of the remains, the ghastly is the same — the tank of the telescope the rest of the telescope with its glasses has been lost. As it is difficult to imagine that eyes, though useless, could be an advantage to animals living in darkness, their loss may be attributed to disuse. One of the blind moles, namely the common (Noctoma) two of which were captured by Professor Silliman, the half-mile distance from the mouth of the cave and therefore not the profoundest of this, they were lustrous and of large size and these animals, as I am informed by Professor Silliman, after having been exposed for a short time to graduated light, acquired dim perception of objects.

It is difficult to imagine conditions of life more similar than deep limestone caverns under nearly similar climate so that, in accordance with the old view of the blind animals having been separately created for the American and European caverns, very close similarity in their organization and affinities is to be expected. This is certainly

concordance with the old view of the blind animals having been separately created for the American and European caverns, very close similarity in their organization and affinities is to be expected. This is certainly

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few forms between the Mammoth cave (in Kentucky) and the caves in Carniola, other wise than as a very plain expression of that analogy which exists generally between the fauna of Europe and of North America. On many views we must suppose that American animals, having in most cases ordinary powers of vision, slowly migrated by successive generations from the shallow to the deeper and deeper recesses of the Kentucky caves, as did European animals to the caves of Europe. What has some difference of this gradation of habit for as Schödlitz remarks, "According to the look upon the bit of an animal as small ramifications which have penetrated in to the earth from the geographical limit of the animal's adjacent tracts, and which as they extended themselves into darkness, have been accommodated to the surrounding circumstances. Animals not far removed from ordinary forms, prepare the transition from light to darkness. Notwithstanding that there are considerable twilight and last of all those of the twilight darkness, and whose formation is quite peculiar. These remarks of Schödlitz should be understood, apply not to the same but to distinct periods. By the time that an animal had reached, after a more or less long time, the deeper recesses, disuse will in the animal have rendered it less perfectly adapted to its eyes, and natural selection will fit it to the imperfectly changed, changes as an increase in the length of the antennae, palpi, as compensation for blindness. Notwithstanding this modification, we might expect still to see in the cave animals of America, affinities to the inhabitants of that continent, and in this sense of Europe to the inhabitants of the European continent. And this is the case with some of the American cave-animals, as I have heard from Professor Dana and some of the European cave-

tants of the two continents on the ordinary view of their independent creation. That several of the inhabitants of the caves of the Old and New Worlds should be closely related we might expect from the well known relationship of most of their other productions. As a blind species of *Bathyscia* is found in abundance in shady rocks far from cave the loss of vision in the cave species of this one genus has probably had no relation to its dark habitation for it is natural that an insect alienly deprived of vision should readily become adapted to dark caverns. Another blind genus (*Anophthalmus*) offers this remarkable peculiarity that the species as Mr Murray observes have not as yet been found anywhere except in caves yet those which inhabit the several caves of Europe and America are distinct but it is possible that the progenitors of these several species whilst they were furnished with eyes may formerly have ranged over both continents and then have become extinct excepting in their present secluded abodes. Far from feeling surprise that some of the cave animals should be very anomalous as Agassiz has remarked in regard to the blind fish the *Amblyopsis* and as is the case with blind *Reptiles* with reference to the reptiles of Europe I am only surprised that more wrecks of ancient life have not been preserved owing to the less severe competition to which the scanty inhabitants of the earth's abode will have been exposed.

Acclimatisation

Habit is hereditary with plants as in the period of flowering in the time of sleep in the amount of rain requisite for seeds to germinate &c. and thus lead me to say a few words on acclimatisation. As it is extremely common for distinct species belonging to the same genus to inhabit hot and cold countries if it be true that all the species of the same genus are descended from a single parent form acclimatisation must be readily effected during a long course of descent. It is notorious that each species is adapted to the climate of its own home species from an arctic or even from a temperate region cannot endure a tropical climate or conversely. So again many succulent plants cannot endure a damp climate. But the degree of adaptation of species to the climates under which they live is often overrated. We may infer this from our frequent inability to predict whether or not an imported plant will endure our climate and from the number of plants and animals brought from different

countries which are here perfectly healthy. We have reason to believe that species in a state of nature are closely limited in their ranges by the competition of other organic beings quite as much as or more than by a limitation to particular climates. But whether or not this adaptation is in most cases very close we have evidence with some few plants, of their becoming to a certain extent naturally habituated to different temperatures that is they become acclimatised thus the pines and rhododendrons raised from seed collected by Dr Hooker from the same species growing at different heights on the Himalaya were found to possess in this country different constitutional powers of resisting cold. Mr Thwaites informs me that he has observed similar facts in Ceylon and his observations have been made by Mr H. C. Watson on European species of

duces of species having largely extended within historical time their range from warmer to cooler latitudes and conversely but we do not positively know that these animals were strictly adapted to their native climate though in all ordinary cases we assume such to be the case nor do we know that they have subsequently become peculiarly acclimatised to their new home so as to be better fitted for them than they were at first.

As we may infer that our domestic animals were originally chosen by uncivilised man because they were useful and because they bred readily under confinement and not because they were subsequently found capable of far extended transportation the common and extraordinary capacity in our domestic animals of not only withstanding the most different climates but of being perfectly fertile (a far everlast) under them may be used as an argument that a large proportion of other animals now in a state of nature could easily be brought to bear widely different climates. We must not however push the foregoing argument too far on account of the probable origin of some of our domestic animals from several wild stocks the blood for instance of a tropical and arctic wolf may perhaps be mingled in our domestic breeds. The rat and mouse cannot be considered as domestic animals but they have been transported by man to many parts of the world and now have a far wider range than any other rodent for they live under the cold climate of Faroe in the

orth and of the Falklands in the so the, and on many an island in the torrid zones. He ce adapt to the special climate may be look

to most animals

enduring the most different climates by man himself and by the domestic animals, and the fact of the extinct elephant and rhinoceros having formerly endured a glacial climate, whereas the living peccaries are well tropical or sub-tropical in their habits, give of to be looked at as anomalies, but as examples of a very common flexibility of constitution, brought, under peculiar circumstances, into action.

If we much of the acclimatisation of species to any peculiar climate is due to mere habit and how much to the natural selection of varieties having different constitutions, and how much to both in any combined, is an obscure question. That habit custom has some influence I must believe both from analogy and from the incessant advice given agricultural works, even in the ancient history of the Chinese, to be very cautious in transporting animals from one district to another. And as it is not likely that man should have succeeded in selecting so many breeds and sub-breeds with constitutions peculiarly fitted for their various districts, the result must, I think, be due to habit. On the other hand, natural selection would inevitably preserve those individuals which were born with constitutions best adapted to any country. Hence the yuhahed I treatises many kinds of cultivated plants, certain varieties are said to withstand certain climates better than others. This is strikingly shown in our fruit trees published in the United States, in which certain varieties are habitually recommended for the north and the rest of the southern States and as most of these varieties are of recent origin, they cannot without the most natural differences to habit. The case of the Jerusalem artichoke which is propagated in England by seed and of which consequently new varieties have not been produced, has not been advanced, as proof that acclimatisation cannot be effected. It is now as tender as ever it was. The case also, of the kidney bean has been often cited for a similar purpose and the much greater weight of the seeds of someone will sow a score of generations, has had beans so early that a very large proportion are destroyed by frost,

and then collect seed from the few survivors, with care to prevent accidental crosses, and then again get seed from these seedlings, with the same precautions, the experiment cannot be said to have been tried. Nor let it be supposed that differences in the constitution of seedlings, kidney beans, appear for an account has been published how much more hard some seedlings are than others and of this fact I have myself observed striking instances.

On the whole we may conclude that habit or use and disuse have in some cases, played a considerable part in the modification of the constitution and structure but that the effect has often been largely combined with and sometimes modified by the natural selection of innate variations.

Correlated Variation

I mean by the expression that the whole organisation is so tied together that during its growth and development when light actions in any one part occur and are cumulated through natural selection other parts become modified. This is a very important subject most imperfectly understood and described by different classes of facts may be easily confounded together. We shall presently see that simple inheritance

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larvae naturally tend to affect the structure of the mature animal. The several parts of the body which are homologous, and which attain easily embryonic period are identical in structure and which are necessarily exposed to similar conditions, seem eminently liable to vary in like manner. We see this in the ribs and flaps of the body varying in the same manner in the front and hind legs, and in the jaws and limbs, right and left of the lower jaw is believed by some to be homologous with the limbs. The second and third digits become most reduced or lost completely by natural selection thus a family of tigers once existed with an antelope on the whole and if this had been of any great use to the breed, it might probably have been rendered permanent by selection.

If homologous parts, as has been remarked by some, the related colour thus; often seen in monstrosities and in things is more common than the union of homologous parts in normal structures, as in the union of the petals

into a tube. Hard parts seem to affect the form of adjoining soft parts: it is believed by some authors that with birds the diversity in the shape of the pelvis causes the remarkable diversity in the shape of their kidneys. Others believe that the shape of the pelvis in the human mother influences by pressure the shape of the head of the child. In snakes, according to Schlegel, the form of the body and the manner of swallowing determine the position and form of several of the most important viscera.

The nature of the bond is frequently quite obscure. Isidore Geoffroy St Hilaire has forcibly remarked that certain malconformations frequently and that others rarely co-exist without our being able to assign any reason. What can be more singular than the relation in cats between complete whiteness and blue eyes with deafness, or between the tortoise shell colour and the female sex, or in pigeons between their feathered feet and skin betwixt the outer toes, or between the presence of more or less down on the young pigeon when first hatched, with the future colour of its plumage, or again the relation between the hair and teeth in the naked Turkish dog, though here no doubt homology comes into play? With respect to this latter case of correlation, I think it can hardly be accidental that the two orders of mammals which are most abnormal in their dermal covering, viz. Cetacea (whales) and Edentata (armadillos, scaly ant-eaters, &c.) are likewise on the whole the most abnormal in their teeth, but there are so many exceptions to this rule, as Mr. Mivart has remarked, that it has little value.

I know of no case better adapted to show the importance of the laws of correlation and variation independently of utility, and therefore of natural selection, than that of the difference between the outer and inner flowers in some compositous and umbelliferous plants. Every one is familiar with the difference between the ray and central florets of, for instance, the daisy, and this difference is often accompanied with the partial or complete abortion of the reproductive organs. But in some of these plants the seeds also differ in shape and sculpture. These differences have sometimes been attributed to the pressure of the involucre on the florets, or to their mutual pressure, and the shape of the seeds in the ray-florets of some *Compositæ* countenances this idea, but with the Umbelliferae it is by no means, as Dr. Hooker informs me, the species with the densest heads which most frequently

differ in their inner and outer flowers. It might have been thought that the development of the ray-petals by drawing nourishment from the reproductive organs causes their abortion; but this can hardly be the sole cause, for in some *Compositæ* the seeds of the outer and inner florets differ without any difference in the corolla. Possibly these several differences may be connected with the different flow of nutriment towards the central and external flowers, we know at least that with irregular flowers those nearest to the axis are most subject to peloria, that is to become abnormally symmetrical. I may add as an instance of this fact, and as a striking case of correlation, that in many *pelargoniums* the two upper petals in the central flower of the truss often lose their patches of darker colour, and when this occurs the adherent nectary is quite aborted, the central flower thus becoming peloric or regular. When the colour is absent from only one of the two upper petals, the nectary is not quite aborted but is much shortened.

With respect to the development of the corolla, Sprengel's idea that the ray-florets serve to attract insects, whose agency is highly advantageous or necessary for the fertilisation of these plants, is highly probable, and if so, natural selection may have come into play. But with respect to the seeds, it seems impossible that their differences in shape, which are not always correlated with any difference in the corolla, can be in any way beneficial, yet in the Umbelliferae these differences are of such apparent importance—the seeds being sometimes orthospermous in the exterior flowers and exospermous in the central flowers—that the elder De Candolle founded his main divisions in the order on such characters. Hence modifications of structure, viewed by systematists as of high value, may be wholly due to the laws of variation and correlation, without being as far as we can judge of the slightest service to the species.

We may often falsely attribute to correlated variation structures which are common to whole groups of species, and which in truth are simply due to inheritance, for an ancient progenitor may have acquired through natural selection some one modification in structure, and after thousands of generations some other and independent modification, and these two modifications, having been transmitted to a whole group of descendants with diverse habits, would naturally be thought to be in some necessary manner correlated. Some other

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has to perform diversified work, we can perhaps see why it should remain variable—that is why natural selection should not have preserved or rejected each little deviation of form as carefully as when the part has to serve for some one special purpose. In the same way a knife which has to cut all sorts of things may be of almost any shape whilst a tool for some particular purpose must be of some particular shape. Natural selection it should never be forgotten can act solely through and for the advantage of each being.

Rudimentary parts as it is generally admitted are apt to be highly variable. We shall have to recur to this subject and I will here only add that their variability seems to result from their uselessness and consequently from natural selection having had no power to check deviations in their structure.

A Part developed in any Species in an extraordinary degree or manner in comparison with the same Part in allied Species tends to be highly variable

Several years ago I was much struck by a remark to the above effect made by Mr Waterhouse. Professor Owen also seems to have come to a nearly similar conclusion. It is hopeless to attempt to convince any one of the truth of the above proposition without giving the long array of facts which I have collected and which cannot possibly be here introduced. I can only state my conviction that it is a rule of high generality. I am aware of several causes of error but I hope that I have made due allowance for them. It should be understood that the rule by no means applies to any part however unusually developed unless it be unusually developed in one species or in a few species in comparison with the same part in many closely allied species. Thus the wing of a bat is a most abnormal structure in the class of mammals but the rule would not apply here because the whole group of bats possess wings; it would apply only if some one species had wings developed in a remarkable manner in comparison with the other species of the same genus. The rule applies very strongly in the case of secondary sexual characters when displayed in any unusual manner. The term secondary sexual characters used by Hunter relates to characters which are attached to one sex but are not directly connected with the act of reproduction. The rule applies to males and females but more rarely to the females as they

seldom offer remarkable secondary sexual characters. The rule being so plainly applicable in the case of secondary sexual characters, may be due to the great variability of these characters whether or not displayed in any unusual manner—of which fact I think there can be little doubt. But that our rule is not confined to secondary sexual characters is clearly shown in the case of hermaphrodite cirripedes. I particularly attended to Mr Waterhouse's remark whilst investigating this Order and I am fully convinced that the rule almost always holds good. I shall in a future work give a list of all the more remarkable cases. I will here give only one as it illustrates the rule in its largest application. The opercular valves of sessile cirripedes (rock barnacles) are in every sense of the word very important structures and they differ extremely little even in distinct genera but in the several species of one genus *Lygoma* these valves present a marvellous amount of diversification the homologous valves in the different species being sometimes wholly unlike in shape and the amount of variation in the individuals of the same species is so great that it is no exaggeration to state that the varieties of the same species differ more from each other in the characters derived from these important organs than do the species belonging to other distinct genera.

As with birds the individuals of the same species inhabiting the same country vary extremely little I have particularly attended to them and the rule certainly seems to hold good in this class. I cannot make out that it applies to plants and this would have seriously shaken my belief in its truth had I not the great variability in plants made it particularly difficult to compare their relative degree of variability.

When we see any part or organ developed in a remarkable degree or manner in a species the fair presumption is that it is of high importance to that species; nevertheless it is in this case eminently liable to variation. Why should this be so? On the view that each species has been independently created with all its parts as we now see them I can see no explanation. But on the view that groups of species are descended from some other species and have been modified through natural selection I think we can obtain some light. First I make some preliminary remarks. If in our domestic animals any part or the whole animal be neglected and no selection be ap-

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full play and thus to fluctuating condition. But what here more particularly concerns us, is that those points in our domestic animals, which at the present time are undergoing rapid change by continued selection, are also eminently liable to variation. Look at the individuals of the same breed of the pigeon, and see what a prodigious amount of difference there is in the beaks of tumblers, in the beaks and width of ears, in the carriage and tail of fantails, &c., these being the points now mainly attended to by English fanciers. Even the same sub-breed as in that of the show-faced tumbler is notorious for difficult breeding and perfect birds may depart widely from the standard. There may truly be said to be constant struggle going on between, on the one hand, the tendency to revert to the less perfect state as well as an incessant tendency to new variations, and, on the other hand, the power of actual selection to keep the breed true. In the long run selection gains the day and we do not expect to fail so completely as to breed a bird as coarse as common tumbler pigeon from good show-faced strain. But as long as selection is rapidly going on, much variability in the parts undergoing modification may always be expected.

Now let us turn to nature. When a part has been developed in a transitory manner in any one species, compared with the other species of the same genus, we may conclude that this part has undergone an extraordinary amount of modification since the period when the several species branched off from the common progenitor of the genus. This period will seldom be remote in an extreme degree as species rarely endure for more than a geological period. An extraordinary amount of modification implies an unusually large and long-continued amount of variability which has continually been accumulated by natural selection for the benefit of the species. But as the variability of the extraordinarily developed part or organ has been so great and long continued within a period not excessively re-

course of time cease and that the most anomalously developed strain may be made constant. I see no reason to do but. Hence when the ever abnormal it may be his

in accordance with the theory for an immense period in nearly the same state and it has been not to be more variable than

of the individuals arising in the required manner and breed and both continued rejection of those individuals that are former and less-modified condition.

Specific Characters more variable than Generic Characters

The principle discussed under the last heading may be applied to the present subject. It is not necessary that specific characters are more variable than generic. To explain this a simple example will be sufficient. If in a large genus of plants some species had blue flowers and some had red, the colour would be only a specific character and no one would be surprised at the fact that blue species arising into red, or conversely that if all the species had blue flowers, the colour would become a generic character and its variation would be a more unusual circumstance. I have chosen this example because the plant to which most naturalists would allude is not the reproducible name that specific characters are more variable than generic, because they are taken from parts of less biological importance than those commonly used for classing genera. I believe this explanation partly etiological and indirect. I shall, however, have to return to this point in the chapter on Classification. It would be almost superfluous to add the evidence in support of the statement, that ordinary specific

characters are more variable than generic but with respect to important characters I have repeatedly noticed in works on natural history that when an author remarks with surprise that some important organ or part which is generally very constant throughout a large group of species differs considerably in closely allied species it is often *variable* in the individuals of the same species. And this fact shows that a character which is generally of generic value when it sinks in value and becomes only of specific value often becomes variable though its physiological importance may remain the same. Something of the same kind applies to monstrosities at least Isidore Geoffroy St Hilaire apparently entertains no doubt that the more an organ normally differs in the different species of the same

variable than those parts of the organisation which have for a very long period remained constant

Secondary Sexual Characters Variable—I think it will be admitted by naturalists, without my entering on details that secondary sexual characters are highly variable. It will also be admitted that species of the same group differ from each other more widely in their secondary sexual characters than in other parts of their organisation compare for instance the amount of difference between the males of gallinaceous birds in which secondary sexual characters are strongly displayed with the amount of difference between the females. The cause of the original variability of these characters is not manifest.

It is frequently created why should that part of the structure which differs from the same part in other independently created species of the same genus be more variable than those parts which are

on ordinary selection as it does not entail death but only gives

very marked and fixed varieties we might expect often to find them still continuing to vary in those parts of their structure which have varied within a moderately recent period and which have thus come to differ. Or to state the case in another manner—the points in which all the species of a genus resemble each other and in which they differ from allied genera are called generic characters and these characters may be attributed to inheritance from a common progenitor for it can rarely have happened that natural selection will have modified several distinct species fitted to more or less widely-different habits in exactly the same manner and as these so-called generic characters have been inherited from before the period when the several species first branched off from their common progenitor and subsequently have not varied or come to differ in any degree or only in a slight degree it is not probable that they should vary

and as these specific characters have varied and come to differ since the period when the species branched off from a common progenitor it is probable that they should still often be in some degree variable—at least more

they are highly variable sexual selection will have had a wide scope for action and may thus have succeeded in giving to the species of the same group a greater amount of difference in these than in other respects

It is a remarkable fact that the secondary differences between the two sexes of the same species are generally displayed in the very same parts of the organisation in which the species of the same genus differ from each other. Of this fact I will give in illustration the two first instances which happen to stand on my list and as the differences in these cases are of a very unusual nature the relation can hardly be accidental. The same number of joints in the tarsi is a character common to very large groups of beetles but in the *Longida* as Westwood has remarked the number varies greatly and the number likewise differs in the two sexes of the same species. Again in the fossil hymenoptera the neuration of the wings is a character of the highest importance because common to large groups but in certain genera the neuration differs in the different species and likewise in the two sexes of the same species. Sir J Lubbock has recently remarked that several minute crustaceans offer excellent illustration of this law. In *Oniscus* for instance the sexual characters are afforded mainly by the anterior antenna and by the fifth pair of legs the specific differences also are principally given by these organs. This

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b ntance.

No doubt it is a very surprising fact that characters should reappear after having been lost for many probably for hundreds of generations. But when a breed has been crossed only once by some other breed the offspring occasionally show for many generations a tendency to revert in character to the foreign breed—some say for a dozen or even a score of generations. After twelve generations the proportion of blood to use a common expression from one ancestor is only 1 in 2^{12} and yet as we see it is generally believed that a tendency to reversion is retained by this remnant of foreign blood. In a breed which has not been crossed but in which *both* parents have lost some character which their progenitor possessed the tendency whether strong or weak to reproduce the lost character might as we formerly remarked for all that we can see to the contrary be transmitted for almost any number of generations. When a character which has been lost in a breed reappears after a great number of generations the most probable hypothesis is not that one individual suddenly takes after an ancestor removed by some hundred generations but that in each successive generation the character in question has been lying latent and at last under unknown favourable conditions is developed. With the barb pigeon for instance which very rarely produces a blue bird it is probable that there is a latent tendency in each generation to produce blue plumage. The abstract improbability of such a tendency being transmitted through a vast number of generations is not

sometimes thus inherited

As all the species of the same genus are supposed to be descended from a common progenitor it might be expected that they would occasionally vary in an analogous manner so that the varieties of two or more species would resemble each other or that a variety of one species would resemble in certain characters another and distinct species—this other species being according to our view only a well marked and permanent variety. But characters exclusively due to analogous variation would probably be of an unimportant nature for the preservation of all functionally important characters will have been determined through natural selection in accordance with the different habits of the species. It might further be expected that the species of the

same genus would occasionally exhibit reversions to long lost character. As however we do not know the common ancestors of any natural group we cannot distinguish between reversionary and analogous characters. If for instance we did not know that the parent rock pigeon was not feather footed or turn crowned we could not have told whether such characters in our domestic breeds were reversions or only analogous variations but we might have inferred that the blue colour was a case of reversion from the number of the markings which are correlated with this tint and which would not probably have all ap

pearing when differently coloured breeds are crossed. Hence although under nature it must generally be left doubtful what cases are reversions to formerly existing characters, and what are new but analogous variations yet we ought on our theory sometimes to find the varying offspring of a species assuming characters which are already present in other members of the same group. And this undoubtedly is the case.

The difficulty in distinguishing variable species is largely due to the varieties mocking as it were other species of the same genus. A considerable catalogue also could be given of forms intermediate between two other forms which themselves can only doubtfully be ranked as species and this shows unless all these closely allied forms be considered as independently created species that they have in varying assumed some of the characters of the

occasionally vary so as to resemble in some degree the same part or organ in an allied species. I have collected a long list of such cases but here as before I lie under the great disadvantage of not being able to give them. I can only repeat that such cases certainly occur and seem to me very remarkable.

I will however give one curious and complex case not in itself as affecting any important character but from occurring in several species of the same genus partly under domestication and partly under nature. It is a case almost certainly of reversion. The ass sometimes has very distinct answer bars on its leg like those on the legs of the zebra. It has been asserted that these are plane in the

foal, and, from many lines which I have made, I believe this to be true. The tripe on the shoulder is sometimes double and is very variable in length and thickness. A white ass, but not an all white, has been described with a triangular red stripe and these stripes are sometimes very obscure or actally quite lost, dark-colored asses. The Arabian of Pallas said to have been white and a little black tripe. Mr. Blith has seen a specimen of the hemionus with a distinct white stripe though the proper has none.

zebra the body is with the bars in the leg but Dr. Gray has figured a specimen with very white triangular bars in the hocks.

With respect to the horse I have collected asses, England, the principal specimens of the most distinct breeds, of fall-colored transvaal, red, light, red, and red, mouse-duns, and a number of the best faint hounds, the specimens have been made, and I have seen a trace in the horse. My so-called careful and two distinct forms of dun, black, and light, the stripes I have myself seen. I do not know and cannot say. Willoughby has been carefully described to me both with the parallel stripes and the light.

I think the west coast of India the hatter, as breed of horses, so generally striped that I think from China, India, and the same in the breed of the Indian Grooms, the horse about the coast is considered as painted. The people of the striped the are generally barred and the light tripe, which is sometimes double and sometimes triple is common to all of the face more is sometimes striped. The tripe are of plainest the foal and sometimes quite disappear. Old sea-coal. I have seen both the light hatter and the striped. The light foal also has a suspect, from the small ground. Mr. W. W. Edwards, the light the light racehorse the light tripe much common in the foal than in the light. The light has a self-recent bred foal from bay mare (offspring of a black man horse and a female mare) by a bay English racehorse. This foal when a week old was marked on its hindquarters and

its forehead with numerous, very narrow dark zebra-like bars, and the legs were deeply striped. All the tripe soon disappeared completely. With the recent ring in the red tail. I may state that I have collected cases of light and striped tripe specimens in the various different breeds in various countries from Britain to eastern China and from New York in the north to the Malay Archipelago in the south. In all parts of the world these tripe occur far oftenest in duns and mouse-dun, the term of a large range of color is included, from one between brown and black to the close approach to the red.

from several analogous pieces—one of which the dark as the light and the light also described appear as a light and ancient crosses with the dark. But the white may be safely rejected if it is highly improbable that the heavy black and the light white.

opposed about the stock.

Now I return to the effect of crossing the several species of the horse genus. R. Linnaeus states, that the common mul from the ass and horse is particularly apt to have the bars on the legs according to Mr. Gosse's report in part of the United States about the number of ten mul horses striped. I once saw a mul with the legs so much striped that any might have thought that it was a hybrid. But and Mr. W. C. Marsh in his cell the time in the light has given figure of a mul. I think the colored wings, which I have seen, are much more plainly barred than the rest of the body and none of them there was a double light tripe. In Lord Morton's famous hybrid from the mare and the mare, the hybrid and the pure spring-bred, the produced from the same mare, the black Arabian were much more plainly barred across the legs than even the pure quagga. Last and this is the most remarkable case, hybrid has been figured by Dr. Gray (and has been mentioned in the knowledge of a second case) from the ass and the light and the hybrid, the light ass light occasionally has tripe, the light and the light has and has the light and the light tripe, the less had all four legs barred and had

three short shoulder stripes like those on the dun Devonshire and Welsh ponies and even had some zebra like stripes on the sides of its face With respect to this last fact I was so convinced that not even a stripe of colour appears from what is commonly called chance that I was led solely from the occurrence of the face stripes on this hybrid from the ass and hemionus to ask Colonel Poole whether such face stripes ever occurred in the eminently striped kattywar breed of horses and was as we have seen answered in the affirmative

What now are we to say to these several facts? We see several distinct species of the horse genus becoming by simple variation striped on the legs like a zebra or striped on the shoulders like an ass In the horse we see this tendency strong whenever a dun tint appears—a tint which approaches to that of the general colouring of the other species of the genus The appearance of the stripes is not accompanied by any change of form or by any other new character We see this tendency to become striped most strongly displayed in hybrids from between several of the most distinct species Now observe the case of the several breeds of pigeons they are descended from a pigeon (including two or three sub-species or geographical races) of a bluish colour with certain bars and other marks and when any breed assumes by simple variation a bluish tint these bars and other marks invariably reappear but without any other change of form or character When the oldest and truest breeds of various colours are crossed we see a strong tendency for the blue tint and bars and marks to reappear in the mongrels I have stated that the most probable hypothesis to account for the reappearance of very ancient characters is—that there is a *tendency* in the young of each successive generation to produce the long lost character and that this tendency from unknown causes sometimes prevails And we have just seen that in several species of the horse genus the stripes are either plainer or appear more commonly in the young than in the old Call the breeds of pigeons, some of which have bred true for centuries, species and how exactly parallel is the case with that of the species of the horse genus? For myself I venture confidently to look back thousands on thousands of generation and I see an animal striped like a zebra but its claps otherwise very differently constructed the common parent of our domestic horse (whether or not it be descended from one or more wild

stocks) of the ass the hemionus, quagga, and zebra

He who believes that each equine species was independently created will I presume assert that each species has been created with a tendency to vary both under nature and under domestication in this particular manner so as often to become striped like the other species of the genus and that each has been created with a strong tendency when crossed with species inhabiting distant quarters of the world to produce hybrids resembling in their stripes not their own parents, but other species of the genus To admit this view is, as it seems to me to reject a real for an unreal or at least for an unknown cause. It makes the works of God a mere mockery and deception I would almost as soon believe with the old and ignorant cosmogonist that fossil shells had never lived but had been created in stone so as to mock the shells living on the sea shore

Summary—Our ignorance of the laws of variation is profound Not in one case out of a hundred can we pretend to assign any reason why this or that part has varied But when

eties of the same species and the greater differences between species of the same genus. Changed conditions generally induce mere fluctuating variability but sometimes they cause direct and definite effects and the eye may become strongly marked in the course of time though we have not sufficient evidence on the head Habit in producing constitutional peculiarities and use in strengthening and disuse in weakening and diminishing organs appear in many cases to have been potent in their effects Homologous parts tend to vary in the same manner and homologous parts tend to colour Modifications in hard parts and in external parts sometimes affect softer and internal parts When one part largely developed perhaps it tends to draw nourishment from the adjoining parts and every part of the structure which can be saved without detriment will be saved Changes of structure at an early age may affect parts subsequently developed and many cases of correlated variation the nature of which we are unable to understand undoubtedly occur Multiple parts are variable in number and in structure perhaps arising from such parts not having been closely specialised for any particular function so that

Less modifications have not been closely checked by natural selection. It follows probably from this same cause, that organs beings low in the scale are more variable than those standing higher in the scale, and which have their whole organisation more specialised. Elementary organs, from being useless, are not regulated by natural selection, and hence are variable. Specific characters—that is, the characters which have come to differ since the several species of the same genus branched off from common parent—are in the variable and generic characters, or those which have long been inherited, and have not differed from the same period. In these remarks we have referred to special parts or organs being still variable because they have recently varied and thus come to differ but we have also seen in the second chapter that the same principle applies to the whole individual in a district where many species of a genus are found—that is, where there has been much former variation and differentiation, or where the manufactory of new specific forms has been actively at work—in that district and amongst these species, we now find, on an average most varieties. Secondary sexual characters are highly variable, and such characters differ much in the species of the same group. Variability in the same parts of the organisation has generally been taken advantage of in giving secondary sexual differences to the two sexes of the same species, and specific differences to the several species of the same genus. Any part or organ developed to an extraordinary size or in an extraordinary manner in

comparison with the same part or organ in the allied
tribe
genus
it shows — — —

order degree than other parts so variation is a long-continued and slow process, and natural selection will in such cases not as yet have had time to overcome the tendency to further variability and to refer on to a less modified state. But when a species with any extraordinary developed organ has become the parent of many modified descendants—which on our view must be a very slow process, requiring a long lapse of time—in this case, natural selection has succeeded in giving a fixed character to the organ, in however extraordinary a manner it may have been developed. Species inheriting nearly the same constitution from a common parent, and exposed to similar influences, naturally tend to present analogous variations, or these same species may occasionally refer to some of the characters of their ancient progenitors. Although new and important modifications may not arise from reversion and analogous variation, such modifications will add to the beautiful and harmonious diversity of nature.

Whatever the cause may be of each slight difference between the offspring and their parents—and a cause for each must exist—we have reason to believe that it is the steady accumulation of beneficial differences which has given rise to all the more important modifications of structure in relation to the habits of each species.

CHAPTER VI

DIFFICULTIES OF THE THEORY

LONG before the reader has arrived at this part of my work a crowd of difficulties will have occurred to him. Some of them are so serious that to this day I can hardly reflect on them without being in some degree staggered but to the best of my judgment the greater number are only apparent and those that are real are not I think fatal to the theory.

These difficulties and objections may be classed under the following heads—First why if species have descended from other species by fine gradations do we not everywhere see innumerable transitional forms? Why is not all nature in confusion instead of the species being as we see them well defined?

Secondly is it possible that an animal having for instance the structure and habits of a bat, could have been formed by the modification of some other animal with widely different habits and structure? Can we believe that natural selection could produce on the one hand an organ of trifling importance such as the tail of a giraffe which serves as a fly flapper and on the other hand an organ so wonderful as

cells and which I as practically anticipated the discoveries of profound mathematicians?

Fourthly how can we account for species when crossed being sterile and producing sterile offspring whereas when varieties are crossed their fertility is unimpaired?

The two first heads will here be discussed some miscellaneous objections in the following chapter. Instinct and Hybridism in the two succeeding chapters.

On the Absence or Rarity of Transitional Varieties—As natural selection acts solely by the preservation of profitable modifications each new form will tend in a fully stocked country to take the place of and finally to exterminate its own less improved parent form and other less favoured forms with which it comes into competition. Thus extinction and natural selection go hand in hand. Hence if we look at each species as descended from some unknown form both the parent and all the transitional varieties will generally have

been exterminated by the very process of the formation and perfection of the new form.

But, as by this theory innumerable transitional forms must have existed why do we not find them embedded in countless numbers in the crust of the earth? It will be more convenient to discuss this question in the chapter on the Imperfection of the Geological Record and I will here only state that I believe the answer mainly lies in the record being incomparably less perfect than is generally supposed. The crust of the earth is a vast museum but the natural collections have been imperfectly made and only at long intervals of time.

But it may be urged that when several closely allied species inhabit the same territory we surely ought to find at the present time many transitional forms. Let us take a simple case in travelling from north to south over a continent we generally meet at successive intervals with closely allied or representative species evidently filling nearly the same place in the natural economy of the land. These representative species often meet and interlock and as the one becomes rarer and rarer the other becomes more and more frequent, till the one replaces the other. But if we compare these species where they intermingle they

each. By my theory these allied species are descended from a common parent and during the process of modification each has become adapted to the conditions of life of its own region and has supplanted and exterminated its original parent form and all the transitional varieties between its past and present states. Hence we ought not to expect at the present time to meet with numerous transitional varieties in each region though they must have existed there and may be embedded there in a fossil condition. But in the intermediate region having intermediate conditions of life why do we not now find closely linking intermediate varieties? This difficulty for a long time quite confounded me. But I think it can be in large part explained.

In the first place we should be extremely cautious in inferring because an area is now

sharply defined Moreover each species of the
coefficient is far more where it exists in lessened
numbers, will differ greatly in the num-
ber of its members from the species in the

of escaping from the difficult of I be-
lieve that many perfectly defined species have
been formed in exactly the same areas
though I do not doubt that the former is
broken into different areas now, as, has
played an important part in the formation of
new species, more especially with freely-cross-
ing and wandering animals.

I look at species as they are widely dis-
tributed in a wide area, we generally find
them tolerably uniform. In a large territory
they become somewhat abruptly rare
and rare, they confound, and finally disappear.
Hence the transition between
the representative species is generally narrow
comparison with the territory proper to
each. We see the same fact as in the ge-
nuses, and sometimes the quite remarkable
how abruptly as in the case of Candell has ob-
served common alpine species disappear.
The same fact has been noticed by E. B. Rie-
man in some of the alpine plants of the
dredge. Those who look at the matter and the
physical conditions of life as the all important
elements of distribution these facts might be
cause surprise as climate and light and soil
gradually and insensibly. But how we bear
in mind that almost every species, even in the
tropics, would increase immensely in num-
bers, were it not for the competing species
that rarely all the prey is as prey
for the short, the attack gains the ground
the directly and really related in the most
important manner to the cause being, —
see that the angle of the inhabitants of the
country is an entirely different
severely hanging the second two, the first in
large part the presence of the species, on

As all the representative species when in
habiting a country are generally dis-
tributed in a manner that each has a wide
range, with a comparatively low neutral
territory between them in which they become
themselves only rarer and rarer then, as we
take the species of the different from species, the
same rule will probably apply to both a different
we take a varying species inhabiting a
large area, we shall find to admit two varieties
to the large areas, and a third variety to a
narrow intermediate zone. The intermediate

between well marked varieties in the genera

species termed to be between the two forms
occasionally are in character more really than
the forms which they connect. Now if we may
trust these facts and differences, and conclude

can understand why the intermediate variety
is found to end the long periods —
by as general rule they should be termi-
nated and disappear sooner than the forms
with which they originally linked together.

For any form existing in large numbers
would as already remarked upon a greater
chance of being terminated than the existing
in large numbers, and thus particular case
the intermediate form would be mainly
liable to the broad of closely allied forms ex-

the reverse proposed to be continued and pe-
riected into two distinct species, the one which
is the large numbers, from inhabiting large
areas, will be great advantage over the
intermediate variety which exists in small
numbers in a narrow and intermediate zone.

blend of the two by sensible grad-
ations, the amount of any one species, depends
as it does on the range of the range, will tend to be

For forms existing in larger numbers will have a better chance within any given period of presenting further favourable variations for natural selection to seize on than will the rarer forms which exist in lesser numbers. Hence the more common form in the race for life will tend to beat and supplant the less common forms for these will be more slowly modified and improved. It is the same principle which as I believe accounts for the common species in each country as shown in the second chapter presenting on an average a greater number of well marked varieties than do the rarer species. I may illustrate what I mean by supposing three varieties of sheep to be kept one adapted to an extensive mountainous region a second to a comparatively narrow hilly tract and a third to the wide plains at the base and that the inhabitants are all trying with equal steadiness and skill to improve their stocks by selection the chances in this case will be strongly in favour of the great holders on the mountains or on the plains improving their breeds more quickly than the small holders on the intermediate narrow hilly tract and consequently the improved mountain or plain breed will soon take the place of the less improved hill breed and thus the two breeds which originally existed in greater numbers will come into close contact with each other without the interposition of the supplanted intermediate hill variety.

To sum up I believe that species come to be tolerably well defined objects and do not at any one period present an inextricable chaos of varying and intermediate links first because new varieties are very slowly formed for variation is a slow process and natural selection can do nothing until favourable individual differences or variations occur and until a place in the natural polity of the country can be better filled by some modification of some one or more of its inhabitants. And such new places will depend on slow changes of climate or on the occasional immigration of new inhabitants and probably in a still more important degree on some of the old inhabitants becoming slowly modified with the new forms thus produced and the old ones acting and reacting on each other. So that in any one region and at any one time we ought to see only a few species presenting slight modifications of structure in some degree permanent and thus assuredly we do see

Secondly areas now continuous must often have existed within the recent period as iso-

lated portions in which many forms more especially amongst the classes which unite for each birth and wander much may have separately been rendered sufficiently distinct to rank as representative species. In this case intermediate varieties between the several representative species and their common parent must formerly have existed within each isolated portion of the land but these links during the process of natural selection will have been supplanted and exterminated so that they will no longer be found in a living state.

Thirdly when two or more varieties have been formed in different portions of a strictly continuous area intermediate varieties will it is probable at first have been formed in the intermediate zones but they will generally have had a short duration. For these intermediate varieties will from reasons already assigned (namely from what we know of the actual distribution of closely allied or representative species and likewise of acknowledged varieties) exist in the intermediate zones in lesser numbers than the varieties which they tend to connect. From this cause alone the intermediate varieties will be liable to accidental extermination and during the process of further modification through natural selection they will almost certainly be beaten and supplanted by the forms which they connect for these from existing in greater numbers will in the aggregate present more varieties and thus be further improved through natural selection and gain further advantages.

Lastly looking not to any one time but to all time if my theory be true numberless intermediate varieties linking closely together all the species of the same group must assuredly have existed but the very process of natural selection constantly tends as has been so often remarked to exterminate the parent forms and the intermediate links. Consequently evidence of their former existence could be found only amongst fossils remains which are preserved as we shall attempt to show in a future chapter in an extremely imperfect and intermittent record.

On the Origin and Transitions of Organic Beings with peculiar Habits and Structure.—It has been asked by the opponents of such views as I hold how for instance could a land carnivorous animal have been connected to one with aquatic habits for I could tell a mammal in its transitional state I have subsisted. It would be easy to show that there now exist carnivorous

VI

animals presenting close intermediate gradations from truly terrestrial habits and as such usually by a triggl for life clear that adaptation to its place in nature. Look at the *Mustela ermine* of North America, which has webbed feet, and which resembles an otter in its short legs and firm tail. Do the *murres* and *ducks* and *preys* fish, but diving the long white tail from waters, and *preys*, like the pole-cat on land and mals. If different cases had been taken, and it had been asked how an insect quadruped could possibly have been converted to fly, might the question be answered far more difficult to answer. I think undoubtedly

Here, as other occasions I have found a highly disadvantageous effect of the many triggl cases which I have collected. I can only observe the distance of transition between habits and truly allied peculiarities of the fixed habits, the recalcitrant occasional, in the same peculiarities. I do not seem to me that nothing is less than a gliding habit.

It is to be seen that difficulty in any particular case like the following.

Look at the family of squirrels here we have the first gradation from an animal with four tails by gliding flight and from thence, as Sir John Hardwicke has marked with the post no part of the body rather wide and thick like the flanks of the flight the so-called gliding squirrels and fly squirrels like the limb and the base of the tail aided by broad pance of skin which serves as parachute. I will with me to glide through the air, at a high distance from tree to tree. We cannot doubt that each structure is fused and adapted for squirrels; its coarsely nubby gliding scale beard beards of prey to collect food more easily as the reason to be to lose the danger from occasional falls. But it does not follow from this fact that the structure of each squirrel is better than it is possible to conceive and all possible gradations. Let the format and gradation change little comparing rodent with beards of prey mmm grt like becomes modified and all analogy will add to be that some at least of the squirrels will decrease in being becoming transitioned unless they also become modified and improved structure corresponding man. Therefore I can see no difficulty more peculiarly and changing

conditions of life in the continued preservation of individuals with flight and flighter flank members each modification being useful

flying lemu which formerly was ranked among the bats, but is now believed to belong to the insect. A very temerary wide lemming and stretches from the corners of the jaw to the tail and in lizards the limbs with the

with the transition from the insect to the bird, the difficulty in supposing that which links firmly existed and that adaptation was developed in the same manner as with the less perfectly gliding squirrels each grade of transition has been useful to its possessor. No one I see any appreciable difficulty in following the line

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transition in which the wing member extends from the top of the shoulder to the tail and the death hind legs, which help see trace of apparatus originally fitted for gliding through the air rather than for flight.
If about the same number of birds were to be compared, then, which would have evolved to resemble that bird might be expected which

— — —
like the peregrine falcon, like the hawk and funt ally for purpose like the apterix. Yet the structure of each of these birds is good for it, and the conditions of life to which it is exposed each has to live by a strategy but is not necessarily the best possible under all possible conditions. It must not be inferred from these remarks that any of the gradations of wing structure have all led to which perfect power of flight by which birds actually acquired their perfect power of flight but they serve to show what diversified means of transition are the last possible

See the following members of the water breathing classes as the Cruace and Mollusca are adapted to live on the land and seeing

that we have flying birds and mammals flying

lightly rising and turning by the aid of their fluttering fins might have been modified into perfectly winged animals. If this had been effected who would have ever imagined that in an early transitional state they had been the inhabitants of the open ocean and had used their incipient organs of flight exclusively as far as we know to escape being devoured by other fish?

When we see any structure highly perfected for any particular habit, as the wings of a bird for flight we should bear in mind that animals displaying early transitional grades of the structure will seldom have survived to the present day for they will have been supplanted by their successors which were gradually rendered more perfect through natural selection. Furthermore we may conclude that transitional states between structures fitted for very different habits of life will rarely have been developed at an early period in great numbers and under many subordinate forms. Thus to return to our imaginary illustration of the flying fish it does not seem probable that fishes capable of true flight would have been

ways *organs of flight had come to a high stage of perfection so as to have given them a decided*

existed in lesser numbers than in the case of species with fully developed structures

I will now give two or three instances both of diversified and of changed habits in the individuals of the same species. In either case it would be easy for natural selection to adapt the structure of the animal to its changed habits or exclusively to one of its several habits. It is however difficult to decide and immaterial for us whether habits generally change first and structure afterwards or whether slight modifications of structure lead to changed habits both probably often occurring and changed

to that *feed on exotic plants or exclusively on artificial substances. Of diversified habits innumer-*

able instances could be given. I have often watched a tyrant flycatcher (*Saurophagus sulphuratus*) in South America, hovering over one

it like a lingfisher at a fish. In our own country the larger titmouse (*Parus major*) may be seen climbing branches almost like a creeper it sometimes like a shrike kills small birds by blows on the head and I have many times seen and heard it hammering the seeds of the

widely open mouth thus catching almost like

cies and to the other species of the same genus, we might expect that such individuals would occasionally give rise to new species having anomalous habits and with their structure either slightly or considerably modified from that of their type. And such instances occur in nature. Can a more striking instance of adaptation be given than that of a woodpecker for climbing trees and seizing insects in the chinks of the bark. Yet in North America there are woodpeckers which feed largely on fruit, and others with elongated wings which chase insects on the wing. On the plains of La Plata, where hardly a tree grows there is a woodpecker (*Colaptes campestris*) which has two toes before and two behind a long pointed tongue pointed tail feathers sufficiently stiff to support the bird in a vertical position on a post but not so stiff as in the typical woodpeckers and a straight strong beak. The beak, however is not so straight or so strong as in the typical woodpeckers but it is strong enough to bore into wood. Hence this *Colaptes* in all the essential parts of its structure is a

clared yet as I can assert, not only from my own observation but from those of the accurate Azara, in certain large districts it does not climb trees, and it makes its nest in holes in banks. In certain other districts, however the same woodpecker as Mr Hudson states frequents trees and bores holes in the trunk for its nest. I may mention as another illustration of the varied habits of this genus, that a

Mexican Colaptes has been described by De Sausure as boring holes into hard wood in order to lay up a store of acorns.

Petrels are the most aerial and oceanic of birds, but in the quiet sounds of Tierra del Fuego, the *Puffinus berardi* in its general habits, in its astonishing power of flying in its manner of swimming and of flying when made to take flight, would be mistaken by any one for an auk or grebe. Certainly it is essentially petrel, but with many parts of its

the deeply scooped membrane between the toes shows that transition has begun to change.

He who believes in separate and innumerable acts of creation may say that in these cases it has pleased the Creator to cause a being of one type to take the place of another being of another type but this seems to me only restating the fact in disguised language. He who believes in the struggle for existence and in the principle of natural selection will acknowledge that every organic being is constantly undergoing to increase in numbers and that if any one being varies so little either in habits or structure, and thus gains an advantage over some other inhabitant of the same country it will secure the place of the

the thrush family boasts by diving into wings and water and grasping to establish its feet. All the members of the great order of hymenopterous insects are terrestrial, excepting the gall-rocket-trupes, which Sir John Lubbock has discovered to be quite in its habits to fly in the water and descend about by the sea not for its gills but of its wings, and remains as long as for hours beneath the surface yet exhibits no modification in structure in accordance with its abnormal habits.

He who believes that each being has been created as we witness it, must occasionally have felt surprise which has met with an animal having habits and true to not in agreement. What can be plainer than that the webbed feet of ducks and geese are formed for swimming. Yet there are upland geese with clubbed feet which rarely go near the water and no one except Audubon has seen the frigate-bird, which has all its feet webbed, alight on the surface of the ocean. On the other hand, grebes and coots are eminently aquatic, although their toes are only broad red membranes. What seems plainer than that the long toes, not furnished with membranes of the Gallinules are formed for walking over swamps and floating plants — the water hen and landrail are members of this order yet the first is nearly as aquatic as the coot, and the second nearly as terrestrial as the quail or partridge. In such cases, and many others could be given, habits have changed with the corresponding change of structure. The webbed feet of the inland goose may be said to have become almost rudimentary in function, though not in structure. In the frigate-bird,

birds with webbed feet, living on the dry land and rarely alighting on the water, that they should be like toed corncrakes, living in meadows and in swamps, that they should be woodpeckers where hardly a tree grows, that they should be diving thrushes and diving Hymenopterous, and petrels with the habits of auks.

Organs of extreme Perfection and Complication

It supposes that they will be inimitable contrivances for adjusting the focus to different distances, for admitting different amounts of light and for the correction of spherical and chromatic aberrations could have been formed by natural selection seems, I freely confess, absurd in the slightest degree. When I was first said that the human tooth and the wild turned round the common sense of mankind declared the doctrine false but the old saying, "for popular or Dei," as every philosopher knows, cannot be trusted in science. Reason tells me, that if numerous gradations from a simple and imperfect eye to the complex and perfect can be shown to exist, each grade being

selected, though imperceptible by our imagination, should not be considered as subsidiary to the theory. If we are to come to be sensitive to light, hardly concerns us more than how

that we have flying birds and mammals flying insects of the most diversified types and formerly had flying reptiles it is conceivable that flying fish which now glide far through the air slightly rising and turning by the aid of their fluttering fins might have been modified into perfectly winged animals. If this had been effected who would have ever imagined that in an early transitional state they had been the inhabitants of the open ocean and had used their incipient organs of flight exclusively as far as we know to escape being devoured by other fish?

When we see any structure highly perfected for any particular habit as the wings of a bird for flight we should bear in mind that animals displaying early transitional grades of the structure will seldom have survived to the present day for they will have been supplanted by their successors which were gradually rendered more perfect through natural selection. Furthermore we may conclude that transitional states between structures fitted for very different habits of life will rarely have been developed at an early period in great numbers and under many subordinate forms. Thus to return to our imaginary illustration of the flying fish it does not seem probable that fishes capable of true flight would have been developed under many subordinate forms for taking prey of many kinds in many ways on the land and in the water until their organs of flight had come to a high stage of perfection so as to have given them a decided advantage over other animals in the battle for life. Hence the chance of discovering species with transitional grades of structure in a fossil condition will always be less from their having existed in lesser numbers than in the case of species with fully developed structures.

I will now give two or three instances both of diversified and of changed habits in the individuals of the same species. In either case it would be easy for natural selection to adapt the structure of the animal to its changed habits or exclusively to one of its several habits. It is however difficult to decide in material for us whether habits generally change first and structure afterwards or whether slight modifications of structure lead to changed habits both probably often occurring almost simultaneously. Of cases of changed habits it will suffice merely to allude to that of the many British insects which now feed on exotic plants or exclusively on artificial substances. Of diversified habits innumera-

ble instances could be given. I have often watched a tyrant flycatcher (*Saurophagus sulphureus*) in South America, hovering over one spot and then proceeding to another like a kestrel and at other times standing stationary on the margin of water and then dashing into it like a kingfisher at a fish. In our own country the larger titmouse (*Parus major*) may be seen climbing branches almost like a creeper; it sometimes like a shrike kills small birds by blows on the head and I have many times seen and heard it hammering the seeds of the yew on a branch and thus breaking them like a nuthatch. In North America the black bear was seen by Heerne swimming for hours with widely open mouth thus catching almost like a whale insects in the water.

As we sometimes see individuals following habits different from those proper to their species and to the other species of the same genus we might expect that such individuals would occasionally give rise to new species having anomalous habits, and with their structure either slightly or considerably modified from that of their type. And such instances occur in nature. Can a more striking instance of adaptation be given than that of a woodpecker for climbing trees and seizing insects in the chinks of the bark? Yet in North America there are woodpeckers which feed largely on fruit, and others with elongated wings which chase insects on the wing. On the plains of La Plata, where hardly a tree grows there is a woodpecker (*Colaptes campestris*) which has two toes before and two behind a long pointed tongue pointed tail feathers sufficiently stiff to support the bird in a vertical position on a post but not so stiff as in the typical woodpeckers and a straight strong beak. The beak however is not so straight or so strong as in the typical woodpeckers but it is strong enough to bore into wood. Hence this *Colaptes* in all the essential parts of its structure is a woodpecker. Even in such trifling characters as the colouring the harsh tone of the voice and undulatory flight its close blood relationship to our common woodpecker is plainly declared yet as I can assert not only from my own observation but from those of the accurate Azara in certain large districts it does not climb trees and it makes its nest in holes in banks. In certain other districts however the same woodpecker as Mr Hudson states frequents trees and bores holes in the trunk for its nest. I may mention as another illustration of the varied habits of this genus that a

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F ego, the *P fin ria bera di*, in ts g n ral hab ts, in ts astonishing power fd g in ts mann of swimming a d of flying wh made to take flight, w ld be m taken by any e for an uk o a grebe e rtheless it is essentially a petrel b t w th many parts of ts organisatio prof u dly modified n l t n to ts w hab ts f life wh reas th wood peck f La Pl ta has had its struct re nly lightly modified In th cas f th w ter ouzel, the acut t l server by xam ing its d ad body w ld n h su pected its b- aquat c hab ts y t th s b rd wl ch all ed to the thrush f mily basts by d g— ing ts wings d r w t r and grasp g st es with ts feet. All the m mbers f th great order flym pt ro insects are t rrestrial,

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hab ts of uks.

surface y t t xhab ts n mod f t n in structure in accordance with ts b mal hab ts.

He wh bel th t ach b ing has been created as w w see t, mu t occas ally ha f lt rp wh h has in t w th an animal h g hab ts and tru tu n t n agreem t. Wh t an be plain r than th t the webbed feet f d cks and geese re f rmed f swimming yet th are upland geese with w bbed feet wh ch rarely g n ar the w te and n cept d bon has seen the f te bird wh ch has all tsf toe w bbed ab ht th urface f th ocean. O th ther hand, grebes and coots re emm tly q tic, altho gh th toe are ly bord red by m m brane. What seem plai th th t tl l g toes, not f rui hed w th m mb an f th Grallatores are f rmed f walki g r swamps and floating plants —th t h n and landral are m mbers f this ord y t th first is nearly as aq ti as the coot, and the second arly as t rre trial as th q ail partridge. In ch cases, and man th rs could be g n, hab ts h changed w th t corresponding chang of tru re Th w bbed feet of the pland goose may be said t h e becom almost rudimentary in fun ti n, though not in structure. In the frigate-bird

Organs of extreme Perfection and Complication

T suppose th t the eye with all its unmit ble co tri an f adjusting tl foc s to d ff r nt d ta es, for dm tting diff t m units of light, d fo th correct f ph cal and chrom t c b t co ld h v been f med by n t l select n seem I freely co fess, b rd tl l ghest d gree When t was first said tl t th un tood till d the w ld turned ro d the commo sense of mankind decl red th doctrin f lse but th ld y g of f pop l or Dei as ery philosopher kn ws, ann t be trusted in scie ce. R ason t lls m th t if n m rous grad ti ns from a s mple and mperfect ey to ne complex and pe fect can b sh wn to exist ach grad be ng usef l to ts possessor as is certainly th case if furthe th y and the na- tions b nh rited as is lik wise certainly th cas and if such variations h uld be usef l to any mal d chang ng co d tions f lif th n th d fficulty f b le : g th t a perfect an l compl ey co ld b f rmed by natural select th gh pe able by our magina- tu h uld n t b cons de ed as sub ers of the theo y If w a n rve comes to be ns tu to light, hardly concerns us more than how

that we have flying birds and mammals flying insects of the most diversified types and formerly had flying reptiles it is conceivable that flying fish which now glide far through the air slightly rising and turning by the aid of their fluttering fins might have been modified into perfectly winged animals. If this had been effected who would have ever imagined that in an early transitional state they had been the inhabitants of the open ocean and had used their incipient organs of flight exclusively as far as we know to escape being devoured by other fish?

When we see any structure highly perfected for any particular habit as the wings of a bird for flight we should bear in mind that animals displaying early transitional grades of the structure will seldom have survived to the present day for they will have been supplanted by their successors which were gradually rendered more perfect through natural selection. Furthermore we may conclude that transitional states between structures fitted for very different habits of life will rarely have been developed at an early period in great numbers and under many subordinate forms. Thus to return to our imaginary illustration of the flying fish it does not seem probable that fishes capable of true flight would have been developed under many subordinate forms for taking prey of many kinds in many ways on the land and in the water until their organs of flight had come to a high stage of perfection so as to have given them a decided advantage over other animals in the battle for life. Hence the chance of discovering species with transitional grades of structure in a fossil condition will always be less from their having existed in lesser numbers than in the case of species with fully developed structures.

I will now give two or three instances both of diversified and of changed habits in the individuals of the same species. In either case it would be easy for natural selection to adapt the structure of the animal to its changed habits or exclusively to one of its several habits. It is however difficult to decide as to material for us whether habits generally change first and structure afterwards or whether slight modifications of structure lead to changed habits both probably often occurring alternately. To that of feeding on exotic plants, or exclusively on artificial substances. Of diversified habits innumerable

instances could be given. I have often watched a tyrant flycatcher (*Saurophagus sulphuratus*) in South America, hovering over one spot and then proceeding to another like a kestrel and at other times standing stationary on the margin of water and then dashing into it like a kingfisher at a fish. In our own country the larger titmouse (*Parus major*) may be seen climbing branches almost like a creeper it sometimes like a shrike kills small birds by blows on the head and I have many times seen and heard it hammering the seeds of the yew on a branch and thus breaking them like a nuthatch. In North America the black bear was seen by Hearne swimming for hours with widely open mouth thus catching almost like a whale insects in the water.

As we sometimes see individuals following habits different from those proper to their species and to the other species of the same genus, we might expect that such individuals would occasionally give rise to new species having anomalous habits and with their structure either slightly or considerably modified from that of their type. And such instances occur in nature. Can a more striking instance of adaptation be given than that of a woodpecker for climbing trees and seizing insects in the chinks of the bark? Yet in North America there are woodpeckers which feed largely on fruit and others with elongated wings which chase insects on the wing. On the plains of La Plata, where hardly a tree grows there is a woodpecker (*Colaptes campestris*) which has two toes before and two behind a long pointed tongue pointed tail feathers sufficiently stiff to support the bird in a vertical position on a post but not so stiff as in the typical woodpecker and a straight strong beak. The beak, however is not so straight or so strong as in the typical woodpeckers but it is strong enough to bore into wood. Hence this *Colaptes* in all the essential parts of its structure is a woodpecker. Even in such trifling characters as the colouring the harsh tone of the voice and undulatory flight its close blood relationship to our common woodpecker is plainly declared yet as I can assert not only from my own observation but from those of the accurate Azara, in certain large districts it does not climb trees and it makes its nest in holes in banks! In certain other districts however the same woodpecker as Mr Hudson states frequents trees and bores holes in the trunk for its nest. I may mention as another illustration of the varied habits of this genus, that a

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glass, as th w ks f the Creator are to those f man

Modes of Transition

If t could b d m trated that any com pl v organ isted wh h co ld not poss bly f

... of epid rmic cells, l ing in sa h h k f ld of th skin and th tteo bod f med from mbv n b-c taneous tissu To ar n h w t j t co lu regard th f rmatio f th th all ts m l lous y t t absol tly perfect ch ract rs, t is indispensabl th t th reaso h ld co q th magnat b t h f lt th difficultv far too keen t b rprised t th rs hes tat ing t t d th p in pl f t al select t so tartling i gth.

It is scarce possibl t d comp n g th with t l scope W kn w th t th is instrum t has bee perfected b th l g co tin ed f rts f th h best h man t l lcts and w t rally inf th t th l as bee f rmed b som wh t an l g process B t m v t th is re ce b pres mpt Ha an right to assum that th Cre t w ks b int llect al pow rslk th se f man If m t compare th t an pt cal instrum t ght in m gnatio t tak thuck la f tran pare t t s. w th pace filled with f l d and i with r v sens t to lght be th, and th ppose r v p rt f th is la t be co t all hang l l m d nst so as to separ t into la rs f dif f re t d nst and thuck nses, placed t dif f re t distances from ach t l and w th th f rces of ach la lo ly angu g f m F rth must ppose that th is pow repre ted b nat rals electio th r v l f th fittest al unte tl w t h n, ach l g t alt t o t l tran pare t l v rs and caref l l presrv g each w l b d ried ere in tances. w any d ree, tend t l prod ce d t t mag W must ppose ach w tat f tl in trum t t be m l t pl ed t h m l l ach t be preserved t l bett prod ced, and t l l d ones to be all destro ed In l g bod s, an t o l l se t l l t alt t o s, g ra t w l m l t pl t l m al m t f n t l and

... all if w look t m ch solated species, ro nd

... nally fo med t a rem t period since wh h l l th m m mbers f the class h e been d loped d in rd to disco e the rlv tran. tio al grad thro h which th o g n has passed w h uld ha to look to y anc t ance tral f rms, lo g nce becom xt t.

W h ld b xtrem ly ea t ou in con l d g that an rran co ld n th e been fo med b tran. t al gradat ns f some k d \ m ro case co ld beg n m g st th l w animals f th sam rgan perf rm g at th sam t m wh l d tinct fun tions t l s in th l r v f th drag n fly and n th f l h Col t is th l m tary canal re pures, d ests and e cret s. In th Hydra, the an mal m y be t ried in d t, and th t e io rface will th d t and th tomach resp re In ch case n t al select a m ht pec l se f any ad antag w re th gained th wh l o p t f an an which had pre ously perf med t f t ns, f f t n al and t l s b use bl t p greatly chang ts n t re M plants are kn wn wh ch regularly prod ce t th sam t me diff rently constru ted f l w rs and if ch plants w re t prod ce n k d l gre t ha g w ld b ffect ed w l comparat dde ess th haract f tl pec es It s, l probabl that t t sorts f f l w rs b rn by th sam pla t w re rignall diff re tuated by fin l v grad ted t ps, which m y t ll b f l owed in som f w cases.

Ag tw distinct rgans, o th sam gan und t r v diff rent f rms, ma sim l taneo l perf rms in th sam und d al th sam functio and this is an tremely mpo tant in ans f trans t to g o instance —t l re are fish with gills b anchor th t breath th air dissol ed in the w te t th

... t bel that l g ptical instrum t might th be f rmed as perio to of

life itself originated but I may remark that, as some of the lowest organisms in which nerves cannot be detected are capable of perceiving light it does not seem impossible that certain sensitive elements in their sarcodae should be come aggregated and developed into nerves endowed with this special sensibility

In searching for the gradations through which an organ in any species has been perfected we ought to look exclusively to its lineal progenitors but this is scarcely ever possible and we are forced to look to other species and genera of the same group that is to the collateral descendants from the same parent form in order to see what gradations are possible and for the chance of some gradations having been transmitted in an unaltered or little altered condition But the state of the same organ in distinct classes may incidentally throw light on the steps by which it has been perfected

The simplest organ which can be called an eye consists of an optic nerve surrounded by pigment-cells and covered by translucent skin but without any lens or other refractive body We may however according to M Jourdain descend even a step lower and find aggregates of pigment-cells apparently serving as organs of vision without any nerves and resting merely on sarcodic tissue Eyes of the above simple nature are not capable of distinct vision and serve only to distinguish light from darkness In certain star fishes small depressions in the layer of pigment which surrounds the nerve are filled as described by the author just quoted with transparent gelatinous matter projecting with a convex surface like the cornea in the higher animals He suggests that this serves not to form an image but only to concentrate the luminous rays and render their perception more easy In this concentration of the rays we gain the first and by far the most important step towards the formation of a true picture forming eye for we have only to place the naked extremity of the optic nerve which in some of the lower animals lies deeply buried in the body and in some near the surface at the right distance from the concentrating apparatus and an image will be formed on it

In the great class of the Articulata we may start from an optic nerve simply coated with

great compound eyes form true lenses, and that the cones include curiously modified nervous filaments But these organs in the Articulata are so much diversified that Müller formerly made three main classes with seven subdivisions besides a fourth main class of aggregated simple eyes

When we reflect on these facts, here given much too briefly with respect to the wide, diversified and graduated range of structure in the eyes of the lower animals and when we bear in mind how small the number of all living forms must be in comparison with those which have become extinct the difficulty ceases to be very great in believing that natural selection may have converted the simple apparatus of an optic nerve coated with pigment and invested by transparent membrane into an optical instrument as perfect as is possessed by any member of the articulate class

He who will go thus far ought not to hesitate to go one step further if he finds on finishing this volume that large bodies of facts, otherwise inexplicable can be explained by the theory of modification through natural selection he ought to admit that a structure even as perfect as an eagle's eye might thus be formed although in this case he does not know the transitional states It has been objected that in order to modify the eye and still preserve it as a perfect instrument many changes would have to be effected simultaneously which it is assumed could not be done through natural selection but as I have attempted to show in my work on the variation of domestic animals it is not necessary to suppose that the modifications were all simultaneous if they were extremely slight and gradual Different kinds of modification would also serve for the same general purpose as Mr Wallace has remarked if a lens has too short or too long a focus it may be amended either by an alteration of curvature or an alteration of density if the curvature be irregular and the rays do not converge to a point then any increased regularity of curvature will be an improvement So the contraction of the iris and the muscular movements of the eye are neither of them essential to vision but only improvements which might have been added and perfected at any stage of the construction of the instrument Within the highest division of the animal kingdom namely the Vertebrata we can start from an eye so simple that it consists, as in the lancelet, of a little sack of transparent skin furnished with a nerve and

contrasted with the numerous facets on the cornea of their

ing incident —
the horns of tag become more and more branched and the plumes of some birds become more finely developed as they grow older. Prof. Cope takes the teeth of certain lizards change in length with advancing years with crustacean not only many trivial but some important parts assume a character as recorded by Fritz Muller after maturity. In all these cases — and many could be given — if the age for production were retarded the character of the species, at least in its adult state, would be modified no less than probably that the previous and earlier stages

can form pin but if this has occurred, it is probable that the differences between the young and the mature and between the mature and the old were primordially acquired by graduated steps.

Special Difficulties of the Theory of Natural Selection

Although it must be tremulously said in conclusion that many gains could have been produced by success, small transitional gradations, undoubtedly serious cases of difficulty occur.

One of the most serious is that of function in insects, which are strictly differently constructed from the theoretical perfect model but the case illustrates the necessity of the theory. The electric organs of fishes illustrate this case.

Special difficulty of this impossible to conceive by which the stepwise development of organs has been produced. But this is not surprising, for it does not know of what use they are. In the case of the torpedo and the electric eel, the service of the electric organ is not clear.

that it can hardly be for any self-luminous purposes. Moreover, in the rays besides the electric referred to, there is, as Dr. R. M. D.

ordinary muscle a close analogy in its structure in the distribution of the nerves, and in the manner in which they are acted on by the same reagents. It should also be especially observed that muscular contraction is accompanied by an electrical discharge and as Dr. Radcliffe insists, in the electrical apparatus of the torpedo, the electric organ

but as we know nothing about the habits and structure of the protozoans of the electric fishes, it would be extremely bold to maintain that no conceivable transition is possible by which these organs in higher

in the torpedo the electric organ is the same as the electric organ of the members of the same class especially if in members having very different habits of life, we may generally attribute its presence to inheritance from a common ancestor and its absence in some of the members to loss through disuse or natural selection. So that, if the electric organs had

the modified secondary nature of it. But when we look at the object of the electric organ in the electric fishes provided with electric organs, the theory is satisfied in different parts of the body — the electric organ is constructed as the arrangement of the plates, and according to the current, the process of emanation which the electricity is excited — and lastly, the application of the electricity proceeding from different sources, and the hypothesis that the important fallacies of differences. Hence in the case of fishes furnished with electric organs the case cannot be considered as homologous, but only as analogous in function. Consequently the electric organ also to propose that the electric organ has inherited from a common progenitor if had there been the case

that the electric organ and the electric organs and

same time that they breathe free air in their swimbladders this latter organ being divided by highly vascular partitions and having a ductus pneumaticus for the supply of air. To give another instance from the vegetable kingdom plants climb by three distinct means by spirally twining by clasping a support with their sensitive tendrils and by the emission of aerial rootlets the three means are usually found in distinct groups but some few species exhibit two of the means or even all three combined in the same individual. In all such cases one of the two organs might readily be modified and perfected so as to perform all the work being aided during the progress of modification by the other organ and then this other organ might be modified for some other and quite distinct purpose or be wholly obliterated.

The illustration of the swimbladder in fishes is a good one because it shows us clearly the highly important fact that an organ originally constructed for one purpose namely flotation may be converted into one for a widely different purpose namely respiration. The swimbladder has also been worked in as an accessory to the auditory organs of certain fishes. All physiologists admit that the swimbladder is homologous or ideally similar in position and structure with the lungs of the higher vertebrate animal hence there is no reason to doubt that the swimbladder has actually been converted into lungs or an organ used exclusively for respiration.

According to this view it may be inferred that all vertebrate animals with true lungs are descended by ordinary generation from an ancient and unknown prototype which was furnished with a floating apparatus or swimbladder. We can thus infer from Owen's interesting description of the part under and the strange fact that every particle of food and drink which we swallow has to pass over the orifice of the trachea with some risk of falling into the lungs notwithstanding the beautiful contrivance by which the glottis is closed. In the higher Vertebrate the branchiæ have wholly disappeared—but in the embryo the slits on the sides of the neck and the loop like course of the arteries still mark their former position. But it is conceivable that the now utterly lost branchiæ might have been gradually worked in by natural selection for some distinct purpose for instance Landois has shown that the wings of insects are developed from the tracheæ it is therefore highly probable that in this great class organs which once

served for respiration have been actually converted into organs for flight.

In considering transitions of organs, it is so important to bear in mind the probability of conversion from one function to another that I will give another instance. In cunclated cirripedes have two minute folds of skin called by

surface of the body and of the sack together with the small frenum serving for respiration. The Balanus or sessile cirripede on the other hand have no ovigerous frenum the eggs lying loose at the bottom of the sack within the well enclosed shell but they have in the same relative position with the frenum large much folded membranes which freely communicate with the circulatory lacune of the sack and body and which have been considered by all naturalists to act as branchiæ. Now I think no one will dispute that the ovigerous frenum in the one family are strictly homologous with the branchiæ of the other family indeed they graduate into each other. Therefore it need not be doubted that the two little folds of skin which originally served as ovigerous frenum but which likewise very slightly aided in the act of respiration have been gradually converted by natural selection into branchiæ simply through an increase in their size and the obliteration of their ovigerous function. If all pedunculated cirripedes had become extinct and they have suffered far more extinction than have sessile cirripedes who would ever have imagined that the branchiæ in this latter family had originally existed as organs for preventing the ova from being washed out of the sack?

There is another possible mode of transition namely through the acceleration or retardation of the period of reproduction. This has lately been insisted on by Prof. Cope and others in the United States. It is now known that some animals are early in the period of reproduction at a very early age before they have acquired their perfect character and if this is power became thoroughly well developed in a species, it seems probable that the adult stage of development would sooner or later be lost and in this case especially if the larva suffered much from the mature form in the character of the species would be greatly changed and degraded. Again not a few animals after arriving at maturity go on changing in character during nearly their whole lives. With mammals for instance the

details. As such differences are intelligible, and might even have been expected, in the supposition that species belonging to distinct families had slowly become adapted to the more and more different winds and to breathe the air. For these species, from belonging to distinct families, would have differed to certain extent, and in accordance with the principle that the nature of each animal depends on its facts, viz., the nature of the organism and that of the surrounding conditions, their adaptability assuredly would not have been exactly the same. Consequently natural selection would have had different materials. Adaptations would, in order to arrive at the same functional result and the structures thus acquired would almost necessarily have differed. On the hypothesis of separate acts of creation the whole case remains unintelligible. This line of argument seems to have had great weight in leading Fritz Müller to accept the view maintained by me in this volume.

Another distinguished zoologist, the late Professor Claparede, has argued in the same manner and has arrived at the same result. He shows that there are parasitic mites (Acaridae) belonging to distinct sub-families and families, which are furnished with hair-claspers. These organs must have been independently developed, as they could not have been inherited from common progenitors and in the several groups referred to the modification of the fore legs.—of the hind legs,—of the maxillae or lips,—and of appendages in the hind end of the hind part of the body.

In the former cases, we see the same end gained and the same function performed, in beings not at all remotely allied, by organs in appearance though not in development closely similar. On the other hand, it is a common rule throughout nature that the same end should be gained, some times in the case of closely related beings by the most diversified means. If we deliberately constructed the feather wing of a bird and the membrane-covered wing of a bat and still more so the four wings of a butterfly the two wings of a fly and the two wings of the larva of a beetle. If all these are made to perform the same function, but the number of patterns is the same constructed.—from the lower row of beetle interlocking teeth in the jaws to the simple filament of a Mussel. Seeds are disseminated by their minuteness,—by their capsule being converted into light balloon-like

in various ways, as in the case of the so-called attract and be directed birds.—by the various hooks and grasps of many kinds and serrated wings, so as to adhere to the fur of quadrupeds,—and by being furnished with wings and plumes, as different in shape as they are in the structure so as to be wafted by the breeze. I will give on the instance of this subject of the same end being gained by the most diversified means which I believe to be the most convincing demonstration. Some organisms have been formed in man which for the sake of more variety almost like to in a shape but such a view of nature is in redicule. With plants having separated sexes, and with those in which, the union hermaphrodite the

pollen grains, which are light and incoherent, being blown by the wind through the receptacle to the stigma and this is the simplest plan which can well be conceived. An almost equally simple though very different plan occurs in many plants in which the minute floral disc secretes a few drops of nectar and is consequently visited by insects and these carry the pollen from the anthers to the stigma.

From this simple to we may pass through an infinite number of contrivances, all for the same purpose and effected in essentially the same manner but entailing changes in every part of the flower. The nectar may be stored in an upright shaped receptacles, with the stamens and pistils modified in many ways, some times forming trap-like contrivances, and some times capable of neatly adapted movements through irritability elasticity. From such structures we may advance till we come to such cases of extraordinary adaptation as that lately described by Dr. Cribb in the *Cyclops*. The orchid has part of its labellum hollowed out into a great bucket into which drops of almost pure water continually fall from two secreting horns which stand above it and in the bucket is half filled, the water rises by capillary action. The basal part of the labellum stands on the bucket, and is itself hollowed out into a sort of chamber with two lateral entrances within this chamber there are curious fleshy ridges. The most ingenious man, if he had not witnessed what takes place, could never have imagined what purpose all these parts serve.

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graduated steps these

body offer under our present state of ignorance a difficulty almost exactly parallel with that of the electric organs. Other similar cases could be given for instance in plants the very curious contrivance of a mass of pollen grains borne on a foot stalk with an adhesive gland is apparently the same in *Orchis* and *Isotria*—genera almost as remote as is possible amongst flowering plants but here again the parts are not homologous. In all cases of beings far removed from each other in the scale of organisation which are furnished with similar and peculiar organs it will be found that although the general appearance and function of the organs may be the same yet fundamental differences between them can always be detected. For instance the eyes of cephalopods or cuttle fish and of vertebrate animals appear wonderfully alike and in such widely sundered groups no part of this resemblance can be

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back of a darkened chamber. Beyond this superficial resemblance there is hardly any real similarity between the eyes of cuttle fish and vertebrates as may be seen by consulting Hensen's admirable memoir on these organs in the Cephalopoda. It is impossible for me here to enter on details but I may mention a few of the points of difference. The crystalline lens in the cuttle fish consists of two parts placed one behind the other like two lenses both having a very different structure and disposition to what occurs in the vertebrata. The retina is wholly different with an actual inversion of the elemental parts, and with a large nervous ganglion included within the membranes of the eye. The relations of the muscle are as different as it is possible to conceive and so in other points. Hence it is not a little difficult to decide how far even the same terms ought to be employed in describing the eyes of the Ce-

phalopoda and Vertebrata. It is, of course open to any one to deny that the eye in either case could have been developed through the natural selection of successive slight variations but if this be admitted in the one case it is clearly possible in the other and fundamental differences of structure in the visual organs of two groups might have been anticipated in accordance with this view of their manner of formation. As two men have sometimes independently hit on the same invention so in the several foregoing cases it appears that natural selection working for the good of each being and taking advantage of all favourable variations, has produced similar organs as far as function is concerned in distinct organic beings, which owe none of their structure in common to inheritance from a common progenitor.

Fritz Müller in order to test the conclusions arrived at in this volume has followed out with much care a nearly similar line of argument. Several families of crustaceans include a few species possessing an air breathing apparatus and fitted to live out of the water. In two of these families which were more especially examined by Müller and which are nearly related to each other the species agree most closely in all important characters namely in the sense organs circulating system in the position of the tufts of hair within their complex stomachs, and lastly in the whole structure of the water breathing branchiae even to the microscopical books by which they are cleansed. Hence it might have been expected that in the few species belonging to both families which live on the land the equally important air breathing apparatus would have been the same for why should this one apparatus given for the same purpose have been made to differ whilst all the other important organs were closely similar or rather identical?

Fritz Müller argues that this close similarity in so many points of structure must, in accordance with the views advanced by me be accounted for by inheritance from a common progenitor. But as the vast majority of the species in the above two families, as well as most other crustaceans are aquatic in their habits it is improbable in the highest degree that their common progenitor could have been adapted for breathing air. Müller has thus led carefully to examine the apparatus in the air breathing species and he found it to differ in each in several important points as in the position of the orifice in the manner in which they are opened and closed and in some accessory

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struction of the less well-fitted individuals, — I
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rstanding the nature of the problem.

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great advantage. It is that the lar-
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harassed and the tree gets reduced so that
they remain healthy and disease is so well
able to come down that the relief food
is supplied from the beasts of prey.

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tree whu h are n t lumb s, and which, as
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f th th rn be ng peces n M ca and
So th l m n v sery e as a d f ce aga t
brown s j adrupeds, so the pik ntl palm
m y t first h been d v l ped f r this ob-
ject, and subseq tly l bee mpro d
and tak nd tag f b th plant, as t

be, it may possibly be that the direct ac-
tion of the mind is not to be expected
cautious in drawing any conclusion when
we see that the skin on the head of the elan-

But Dr Crüger saw crowds of large humble bees visiting the gigantic flowers of this orchid not in order to suck nectar but to gnaw off the ridges within the chamber above the bucket in doing this they frequently pushed each other into the bucket and their wings being thus wetted they could not fly away but were compelled to crawl out through the passage formed by the spout or overflow Dr Crüger saw a continual procession of bees thus crawling out of their involuntary bath The passage is narrow and is roofed over by the column so that a bee in forcing its way out first rubs its back against the viscid stigma and then again the viscid glands of the pollen masses The pollen masses are thus glued to the back of the bee which first happens to crawl out through the passage of a lately expanded flower and are thus carried away Dr Crüger sent me a flower in spirits of wine with a bee which he had killed before it had quite crawled out with its pollen mass still fastened to its back When the bee thus provided flies to another flower or to the same flower a second time and is pushed by its com-

to it and the flower is fertilised Now at last we see the full use of every part of the flower of the water secreting horns of the bucket half full of water which prevents the bees from flying away and forces them to crawl out through the spout and rub against the properly placed viscid pollen mass and the viscid stigma

The construction of the flower in another closely allied orchid namely the *Catantus* is widely different though serving the same end and is equally curious Bees visit these flowers like those of the *Coryanthe* in order to gnaw the labellum in doing this they inevitably

tion to a certain membrane which is instantly ruptured this sets free a spring by which the pollen mass is shot forth like an arrow in the right direction and adheres by its viscid extremity to the back of the bee The pollen mass of the male plant (for the sexes are separate in this orchid) is thus carried to the flower of the female plant where it is brought into contact with the stigma which is viscid enough to break certain elastic threads and retaining the pollen fertilisation is effected

How it may be asked in the foregoing and in innumerable other instances can we under-

stand the graduated scale of complexity and the multifarious means for gaining the same end The answer no doubt is as already remarked that when two forms vary which already differ from each other in some light degree the variability will not be of the same exact nature and consequently the results obtained through natural selection for the same general purpose will not be the same We should also bear in mind that every highly developed organism has passed through many changes and that each modified structure tends to be inherited so that each modification will not readily be quite lost but may be again and again further altered Hence the structure of each part of each species for whatever purpose it may serve is the sum of many inherited

Finally then although in many cases it is most difficult even to conjecture by what transitions organs have arrived at their present state yet considering how small the proportion of living and known forms is to the extinct and unknown I have been astonished how rarely an organ can be named towards which no transitional grade is known to lead It certainly is true that new organs appear as if created for some special purpose rarely

saltum We meet with this admission in the writings of almost every experienced naturalist or as Milne Edwards has well expressed it Nature is prodigal in variety but niggard in innovation Why on the theory of Creation should there be so much variety and so little real novelty Why should all the parts and organs of many independent beings each sup-

Nature take a sudden leap from structure to structure? On the theory of natural selection we can clearly understand why she should not for natural selection acts slowly by taking advantage of slight successive variations she can never take a great and sudden leap but must advance slowly short and sure though slow steps.

Organs of little apparent Importance as affected by Natural Selection

As natural selection acts by life and death — by the survival of the fittest and by the des-

feeding male turkey is likewise naked. The sutures in the skulls of young mammals have been advanced as a beautiful adaptation for aiding parturition, and no doubt they facilitate or may be indispensable for this act, but as sutures occur in the skulls of young birds and reptiles which have only to escape from a broken egg, we may infer that this structure has arisen from the laws of growth, and has been taken advantage of in the parturition of the higher animals.

by reflecting on the differences between the breeds of our domesticated animals in different countries—more especially in the less civilised countries where there has been but little methodical selection. Animals kept by savages in different countries often have to struggle for their own subsistence, and are exposed to a certain extent to natural selection, and individuals with slightly different constitutions would succeed best under different climates. With cattle susceptibility to the attacks of flies is correlated with colour, as is the liability to be poisoned by certain plants, so that even colour would be thus subjected to the action of natural selection. Some observers are convinced that a damp climate affects the growth of the hair, and that with the hair the horns are correlated. Mountain breeds always differ from lowland breeds, and a mountainous country would probably affect the hind limbs from exercising them more, and possibly even the form of the pelvis, and then by the law of homologous variation the front limbs and the head would probably be affected. The shape also of the pelvis might affect by pressure the shape of certain parts of the young in the womb. The laborious breathing necessary in high regions tends, as we have good reason to believe, to increase the size of the chest, and again correlation would come into play. The effects of lessened exercise together with abundant food on the whole organisation is probably still more important, and this as H. von Nathusius has lately shown in his excellent treatise is apparently one chief cause of the great modification which the breeds of swine have undergone. But we are far too ignorant to speculate on the relative importance of the several known and unknown causes of variation, and I have made these remarks only to show that, if we are unable to account for the characteristic differences of our several domes-

tic breeds which nevertheless are generally admitted to have arisen through ordinary generation from one or a few parent stocks, we ought not to lay too much stress on our ignorance of the precise cause of the slight analogous differences between true species.

Utilitarian Doctrine, how far true Beauty, how acquired

The foregoing remarks lead me to say a few words on the protest lately made by some naturalists against the utilitarian doctrine, that every detail of structure has been produced for the good of its possessor. They believe that many structures have been created for the sake of beauty to delight man or the Creator (but this latter point is beyond the scope of scientific discussion) or for the sake of mere variety, a view already discussed. Such doctrines if true would be absolutely fatal to my theory. I fully admit that many structures are now of no direct use to their possessors, and may never have been of any use to their progenitors, but this does not prove that they were formed solely for beauty or variety. No doubt the definite action of changed conditions and the various causes of modifications lately specified have all produced an effect, probably a great effect, independently of any advantage thus gained. But a still more important consideration is that the chief part of the organisation of every living creature is due to inheritance, and consequently, though each being assuredly is well fitted for its place in nature, many structures have no very close and direct relation to present habits of life. Thus, we can hardly believe that the webbed feet of the upland goose or of the frigate bird are of special use to these birds; we cannot believe that the similar bones in the arm of the monkey, in the fore leg of the horse, in the wing of the bat, and in the flipper of the seal are of special use to these animals. We may safely attribute these structures to inheritance. But webbed feet no doubt were as useful to the progenitor of the upland goose and of the frigate bird as they now are to the most aquatic of living birds. So we may believe that the progenitor of the seal did not possess a flipper, but a foot with five toes fitted for walking or grasping, but we may further venture to believe that the several bones in the limbs of the monkey, horse, and bat were originally developed on the principle of utility, probably through the reduction of more numerous bones in the fin of some ancient fish like the progenitor

all the same to the inextensible principle of natural selection. If we admit the equality in the number of trials, by which the seeds and many other plants are fertilized through insect agency, can we consider as equally perfect the labor bestowed on the pollination by the fir trees, so that the few granules may be wasted by chance to the oviducts?

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understand being in mind that each organ being is trying to live where it can live how it has risen that there are upland geese with webbed feet, ground woodpeckers digging through holes, and peacocks with their beautiful tails.

Although the belief that a organism so perfect as the eye could have been formed by natural selection, is enough to stagger any one in the case of any given few known failing series of gradual and complete each good for its possessor the undirected gun could not find the means of self-improvement in the acquisition of any conceivable degree of perfection through natural selection. In the case in which we know of intermediate organisms to all states we should be extremely inclined to conclude that nature can

not be led to the conclusion that the adaptation, partly because the process of

the closely allied species, which have been continued as a matter of fact have been formed

are formed in the different forms of the same race, the different varieties of the same form fitted for an intended use, but from reason assigned the intermediate varieties will all be members than the forms which they represent

same function that have given perfect adaptation deduced by the theoretical statement highly facilitated the transition. We have seen that the two birds vary little from the original form, but the same purpose and in the transition process a little may have been separated a little independently formed

less more termed the variety and will the generally proceed in the practical manner

In many cases we are far too ignorant to be able to assert that the process is so un-

the few formed by the selection from an animal which first naturally led to the growth

We see that the species do not continue to change in the same way as the individual forms, the same way like the same forms are the co-generals. However can

select the many times as modification are probably the direct result of the law of natural growth, depending on the good habits of the species. But the natural truth is that, as we may feel assured, the birds are not taking advantage of the different modified forms of the good species. In the second place we must also believe that part of the high importance

which its eggs are deposited in the living bodies of other insects. If it could be proved that any part of the structure of any one species had been formed for the exclusive good of another species it would annihilate my theory for such could not have been produced through natural selection. Although many statements may be found in works on natural history to this effect I cannot find even one which seems to me of any weight. It is admitted that the rattlesnake has a poison fang for its own defence and for the destruction of its prey but some authors suppose that at the same time it is furnished with a rattle for its own injury namely to warn its prey. I would almost as soon believe that the cat curls the end of its tail when preparing to spring in order to warn the doomed mouse. It is a much more probable view that the rattlesnake uses its rattle the cobra expands its frill and the puff blower swells whilst hissing so loudly and harshly in order to alarm the many birds and beasts which are known to attack even the most venomous species. Snakes act on the same principle which makes the hen ruffle her feathers and expand her wings when a dog approaches her chickens but I have not space here to enlarge on the many ways by which animals endeavour to frighten away their enemies.

Natural selection will never produce in a

purpose of causing pain or for doing an injury to its possessor. If a fair balance be struck be

tions of life if any part comes to be injurious it will be modified or if it be not so the being will become extinct as myriads have become extinct.

Natural selection tends only to make each organic being as perfect as or slightly more perfect than the other inhabitants of the same country with which it comes into competition. And we see that this is the standard of perfection attained under nature. The endemic productions of New Zealand for instance are perfect one compared with another but they are now rapidly yielding before the advancing legions of plants and animals introduced from Europe. Natural selection will not produce absolute perfection nor do we always meet as far as we can judge with this high standard

under nature. The correction for the aberration of light is said by Müller not to be perfect even in that most perfect organ the human eye. Helmholtz whose judgment no one will dispute after describing in the strongest terms the wonderful powers of the human eye adds these remarkable words: "That which we have discovered in the way of inexactness and imperfection in the optical machine and in the image on the retina is as nothing in comparison with the incongruities which we have just come across in the domain of the sensations." One might say that nature has taken delight in accumulating contradictions in order to remove all foundation from the theory of a pre-existing harmony between the external and internal worlds. If our reason leads us to admire with enthusiasm a multitude of inimitable contrivance in nature this same reason tells us though we may easily err on both sides, that some other contrivances are less perfect. Can we consider the sting of the bee as perfect, which when used against many kinds of enemies cannot be withdrawn owing to the backward serratures and thus inevitably causes the death of the insect by tearing out its viscera?

If we look at the sting of the bee as having existed in a remote progenitor as a boring and serrate instrument like that in so many members of the same great order and which has since been modified but not perfected for its present purpose with the poison originally adapted for some other object such as to produce g

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for if on the whole the power of stinging be useful to the social community it will fulfil all the requirements of natural selection though it may cause the death of some few members. If we admire the truly wonderful power of scent by which the males of many insects find their females can we admire the production for this single purpose of thousands of drones which are utterly useless to the community for any other purpose and which are ultimately slaughtered by their industrious and sterile sisters. It may be difficult, but we ought to admire the savage instinctive hatred of the queen bee which urges her to destroy the young queens her daughters as soon as they are born or to perish herself in the combat for undoubtedly this is for the good of the community and maternal love or maternal hatred though the latter fortunately is most rare is

all the same to the inexorable principle of natural selection. If we admire the several ingenious contrivances, by which orchids and many other plants are fertilised through insect agency, can we consider an equally perfect the production of dense crowds of pollen by our fir trees, so that a few granules may be wafted by chance on to the ovaries.

summary the Law of Unity of Type and of the Conditions of Existence embraced by the Theory of Natural Selection

We have in this chapter discussed some of the difficulties and objections which may be urged against the theory. Many of them are serious, but I think that in this discussion light has been thrown on several facts, which on the basis of independent acts of creation are utterly obscure. We have seen that species of any one period are not isolated units, variable and are not linked to their by multitude of intermediate gradations, partly because the process of natural selection is slow & very slow and at the same time acts on a few forms and partly because the very process of natural selection imposes the continual supplanting and extinction of preceding and intermediate gradations. Closely allied species, owing to a continuous area, must often have been formed when the area was not continuous, and when the conditions of life did not sensibly graduate from one part to another. When two varieties are formed in two distinct of continuous area, an intermediate variety will often be formed, fitted for an intermediate zone, but from reason assigned, the intermediate variety will usually exist in lesser numbers than the two forms which it connects, converging to the two latter during the course of further modification from existing, in greater numbers, which treat advantage over the less numerous intermediate variety and will thus generally succeed in supplanting and exterminating it.

We have seen in this chapter how cautious we would be in concluding that the most different habits of life could not graduate into each other, that habit, for instance, could not have been formed by natural selection from an animal which first only glided through the air.

We have seen that species under new conditions of life may change to habits or may have developed habits with some very unlike those of its nearest congeners. Hence we can

understand, bearing in mind that each organic being is trying to live wherever it can live how it has arisen that there are upland geese with webbed feet, ground woodpeckers, diving thrushes, and petrels with the habits of auks.

Although the belief that an organ so perfect as the eye could have been formed by natural selection, is enough to startle any one, it is the case of any organ, if we know of a long series of gradations in complexity each good for its possessor, then, under changing conditions of life, there is no logical impossibility in the acquirement of any conceivable degree of perfection through natural selection. In the cases in which we know of no intermediate or transitional states, we should be extremely cautious in concluding that none can have existed, for the metamorphoses of many organs show what wonderful changes in function are at least possible. For instance, a swim bladder has apparently been converted into an air breathing lung. The same organ having performed simultaneously very different functions, and then having been in part or in whole specialised for one function and two distinct organs having performed the same function the same function, though having been perfected whilst aided by the other must often have largely facilitated transitions.

We have seen that in two beings widely remote from each other in their natural scale of organs serving for the same purpose and in their mutual appearance closely similar may have been separately and independently formed but when such organs are closely examined, essential differences in their structure can almost always be detected and this naturally follows from the principle of natural selection. On the other hand, the common rule throughout nature is infinite diversity of structure for gaining the same end and this can naturally follow from the same great principle.

In many cases we are far too ignorant to be enabled to assert that a particular organ is so unimportant for the welfare of species, that modifications in its structure could not have been slowly accumulated by means of natural selection. In many other cases, modifications are probably the direct result of the law of variation or of growth, independently of any good having been thus gained. But in such structures have often, as we may feel assured, been subsequently taken advantage of and still further modified, for the good of species under new conditions of life. We may also believe that part formerly of high importance

as become of such small importance that it could not in its present state have been acquired by means of natural selection

Natural selection can produce nothing in one species for the exclusive good or injury of another though it may well produce parts or organs and excretions highly useful or even indispensable or again highly injurious to another species but in all cases at the same time useful to the possessor In each well stocked country natural selection acts through the competition of the inhabitants and consequently leads to success in the battle for life only in accordance with the standard of that particular country Hence the inhabitants of one country generally the smaller one often yield to the inhabitants of another and generally the larger country For in the larger country there will have existed more individuals and more diversified form

Natural selection will not necessarily lead to absolute perfection nor as far as we can judge by our limited faculties can absolute perfection be everywhere predicated

On the theory of natural selection we can clearly understand the full meaning of that old

canon in natural history *Natura non facit saltum* This canon if we look to the present inhabitants alone of the world is not strictly correct but if we include all those of past times, whether known or not

Life has been formed on two great laws--Unity of Type and the Conditions of Existence By unity of type

Unity of type is explained by unity of descent The expression of conditions of existence so often insisted on by the illustrious Cuvier is fully embraced by the principle of natural selection For natural selection acts by either now adapting the varying parts of each

being affected by the direct action of the external conditions of life and subjected in all cases to the several laws of growth and variation Hence in fact the law of the Conditions of Existence is the higher law as it includes through the inheritance of former variations and adaptations that of Unity of Type

CHAPTER VII

MISCELLANEOUS OBJECTIONS TO THE THEORY OF NATURAL SELECTION

I will devote this chapter to the consideration of various miscellaneous objections which have been advanced against my view, as some of the previous discussions may thus be made clearer but it would be useless to discuss all of them, as many have been made by writers who have not taken the trouble to understand the subject. Thus distinguished German naturalist has asserted that the weakest part of my theory is, that I consider all organic beings as imperfect what I have really said is, that all are not as perfect as they might have been in relation to their conditions and this is also to be the case by so many natural forms in many quarters of the world having killed their places to intruding foreigners. Nor can organic beings, even if they were to attain to a perfectly adapted to their conditions of life have remained so, when their conditions have changed and no one will dispute that the physical conditions of each country as well as the numbers and kinds of its inhabitants, have undergone many modifications.

A critic has lately insisted, with some parade of mathematical accuracy that I give it is a great advantage to all species, so that he who believes in natural selection must arrange his genealogical tree in such a manner that all the descendants have longer lines than their progenitors. Cannot our critic conceive that a biennial plant one of the low animals might range into cold climates and perish there every winter and yet, without aid and aid gained through natural selection, survive from artificial means of its seeds. Mr. E. B. Lankester has recently discussed this subject, and he concludes, as far as to extreme complexity allow him to form judgment, that long vitality is generally related to the standard of each species in the scale of organization, as well as to the amount of expenditure in reproduction and in general activity. And these conditions have, it is probable, been largely determined through natural selection.

It has been argued that, as no of the animals and plants of Egypt, of which we know anything, has changed during the last three or four thousand years, so probably has none in any part of the world. But, as Mr. G. H.

Lew has remarked, this line of argument proves too much, for the ancient domestic races figured on the Egyptian monuments, and embalmed are closely similar or identical with those now living yet all naturalists admit that such races have been produced through the modification of their original types. The human animals which have remained unchanged since the commencement of the glacial period, would have been an incomparably truer case for these have been exposed to great changes of climate and have migrated over great distances whereas, in Egypt, during the last several thousand years, the conditions of

the period would have been of some advantage to those who believe in an innate and necessary law of development, but it is powerless against the doctrine of natural selection the survival of the fittest, which implies that when variations and individual differences of a beneficial nature happen to arise, these will be preserved but this will be effected only under certain favorable circumstances.

The celebrated palaeontologist, Bronn at the close of his German translation of this work, asks, how is the principle of natural selection, can any thing be said by said with the purest species. If both have become fitted for slightly different habits of life or conditions, they may both be to the land and if we have a number of polymorphic species, in which the individual seems to be of peculiar nature and all more or less temporary adaptations, such as size, and manner of life, the more permanent varieties are generally found, as far as I can discover in habitually distinct stations, — such as high land or low land, dry or moist districts. Moreover in the case of animals which wander much about and cross freely their varieties seem to be generally confined to distinct regions.

Bronn also insists that distinct species differ from each other in single characters, but in many parts and he asks, how it always comes that many parts of the organisation should have been modified in the same time through variation and natural selection. But there is no necessity for supposing that all the

parts of any being have been simultaneously modified. The most striking modifications, excellently adapted for some purpose might as was formerly remarked be acquired by successive variations if slight first in one part and then in another and as they would be transmitted all together they would appear to us as if they had been simultaneously developed. The best answer however to the above objection is afforded by those domestic races which have been modified chiefly through man's power of selection for some special purpose. Look at the race and dray horse or at the greyhound and mastiff. Their whole frames and even their mental characteristics have been modified but if we could trace each step in the history of their transformation—and the latter steps can be traced—we should not see great and simultaneous change but first one part and then another slightly modified and improved. Even when selection has been applied by man to some one character alone—of which our cultivated plants offer the best instances—it will invariably be found that although this one part whether it be the flower fruit or leaves has been greatly changed almost all the other parts have been slightly modified. This may be attributed partly to the principle of correlated growth and partly to so-called spontaneous variation.

A much more serious objection has been urged by Bronn and recently by Broca namely that many characters appear to be of no service whatever to their possessors and therefore cannot have been influenced through natural selection. Bronn adduces the length of the ears and tails in the different species of hares and mice—the complex folds of enamel in the teeth of many animals and a multitude of analogous cases. With respect to plants this subject has been discussed by Nageli in an admirable essay. He admits that natural selection has effected much but he insists that the families of plants differ chiefly from each other in

propensity towards progressive and more perfect development. He specifies the arrangement of the cells in the tissues and of the leaves on the axis as cases in which natural selection could not have acted. To these may be added the numerical divisions in the parts of the flower the position of the ovule the shape of the seed when not of any use for dissemination &c.

There is much force in the above objection. Nevertheless we ought in the first place to be extremely cautious in pretending to decide what structures now are or have formerly been of use to each species. In the second place it should always be borne in mind that when one part is modified so will be other parts through certain dimly seen causes, such as an increased or diminished flow of nutriment to a part mutual pressure an early developed part affecting one subsequently developed and so forth—as well as through other cause which lead to the many mysterious cases of correlation which we do not in the least understand. These agencies may be all grouped together for the sake of brevity under the expression of the laws of growth. In the third place we have to allow for the direct and definite action of changed conditions of life and for so-called spontaneous variations, in which the nature of the conditions apparently plays a quite subordinate part. But variation such as the appearance of a moss rose on a common rose or of a nectarine on a peach tree offer good instances of spontaneous variations but even in these cases if we bear in mind the power of a minute drop of poison in producing complex galls we ought not to feel too sure that the above variations are not the effect of some local change in the nature of the sap due to some change in the conditions. There must be some efficient cause for each slight individual difference as well as for more strongly marked variations which occasionally arise and if the unknown cause were to act perpetually it is almost certain that all the individuals of the species would be similarly modified.

In the earlier editions of this work I underrated as it now seems probable the frequency and importance of modifications due to spontaneous variability. But it is impossible to attribute to this cause the innumerable structures which are so well adapted to the habits of life of each species. I can no more believe in this than that the ill adapted form of a race horse or greyhound which before the principle of selection by man was well understood existed so much superior in the midst of the other naturalists can thus be explained.

It may be worth while to illustrate some of

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tures exist
no one doubt—

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taunly are d rived from this process are thus secured. The closed and imperfect flowers are however r manifestly f high importance as th v y ld with th utmo t saf tr a large tock of seed with the expe diture of w nd fully little pollen. The two k ds f fl wers often dif fer m ch, as j t ated, in truct re. The pet als in th imperfect flowers almost alw con sist f mere rudiments, and the pollen grains are red ced in diam te. In *Oro col m x* fi of the alt rnate stamens are rud m tary and in som species of *I ola* three tam ns are in this tale, two retainin th proper func tion, but being of ry small size. I six ut f thurt of th cl sed fl wers in an Indian olet (nam unkn wn f rth plants hav ne r pro duced wtl m perfect fl wers) the sepals are red ced from th n rmal numb of fi e to three. In e sects n of the *Malp giaceae* the closed fl w rs, according to *L. de J ss u* are till furth r modified f r the fi tamen

organ t som of th pecies ~~and~~ be much inf ced by ts lngth.

With respect to plants, t whel on account of *N* s essay I shall confin m self in th following remarks, t w ll be admitted th t th fl wers of rhads prese t a m ltt d of curi ous tructures, which f w ears ago w uld ha been considered mere m rph logical diff rences w tho t an peccal functi b t th y re now kno nt be of th l ghest im

morphic and trim rphu plants th diff re t le gths of the stamens and pistils, and th ir ar rang ment, could h been of an service b t now w know th t be the case

In certain whole gro ps f plants th rules stand rect, and in thers th v are suspended and within the sam arum of som f w plants, one rule h ld th f rm and sec nd rule th latter positio. These posit ns seem at first purely morphol gical, o of no ph wological significatio b t D Hook form m th t within th sam arum, th ppe rules also in som cases, and in th r cases the lo er nes also are fertilised and h suggests that this probabl depends n th di rection in which th poll n-tubes ent r th arum. If so, th position of th rules, n hen on is rect and the ther uspended with in th same arum, w uld follow from th selection of any lght d rations in position such f ured thers f rtalisation, and the pro duction of seed.

Se eral plants belo ging to distinct rd rs hal tu ally produce fl w rs f tw knds,—the one pe of th rdinary tructure, th ther closed and imperfect. These tw knds of fl w rs som times diff wond fully tructure, j t may be see t graduat int ach th on the sam plant. Th ordinary and pen fl rs can be fercrossed and the benefits which eer

n t present in th ordinary fl wers f th s pecies th tyl is aborted and the var are red ced from three to two *N* w lth n t ural selecti n may well ha had th powe to pre nt som of th flow rs f m xpand g, and to red ce the amount f poll n, wh n ren d red b th cl re of the fl w rs sup flu s, yet hardly any of th abo special modifica tions can ha been thus d termined b t must ha f llowed from the law of growth lud ing the funct nal inactvity f parts, during th progress f th red t n of th poll n and th clo ure of the fl w rs.

It is so necessary to ppreci t the impo tant effects f th l w of growth, th t I will gi som add ti nal cases of an th r k d n m l of diff rences in th sam part gan d t d f rences in relatv e position on th sam plant. In th Spanish chestn t, d in certain fi trees, th angles f d r g ce of th l es diff according t Sch ch t; the nearly h rizo tal a d in th upright bran h s. In the comm ru and som ther plants, o fl w s us ally th central t min i n opens first, and has fi sepal and petals, and fi d s ns to th an m whil t ll the th r fl w rs th plant are t tram rose. In th British *Id* the uppermost fl wer g n rally has tw calyx lobes w th th otl gans t tram rose, whilst the urround ng fl w rs generally h g thre calyx lobe w th th oth organs ~~central~~ ~~rope~~. In many Composi

tre and Umbelliferae (and in some other plants) the circumferential flowers have their corollas much more developed than those of the centre and this seems often connected with the abortion of the reproductive organs. It is a more curious fact previously referred to that the achenes or seeds of the circumference and centre sometimes differ greatly in form colour and other characters. In *Carthamus* and some other Compositae the central achenes alone are furnished with a pappus and in *Hyoscyamus* the same head yields achenes of three different forms. In certain Umbelliferae the exterior seeds according to Tausch are orthospermous and the central one coelospermous and this is a character which was considered by De Candolle to be in other species of the highest systematic importance. Prof. Braun mentions a Fumariaceae genus in which the flowers in the lower part of the spike bear oval ribbed one seeded nutlets and in the upper part of the spike lanceolate two valved and two seeded siliques. In these several cases with the exception of that of the well developed ray florets which are of service in making the flowers conspicuous to insects natural selection cannot as far as we can judge have come into play or only in a quite subordinate manner. All these modifications follow from the relative position and interaction of the parts and it can hardly be doubted that if all the flowers and leaves on the same plant had been subjected to the same external and internal condition as are the flowers and leaves in certain positions all would have been modified in the same manner.

In numerous other cases we find modifications of structure which are considered by botanists to be generally of a highly important nature affecting only some of the flowers on the same plant or occurring on distinct plants which grow close together under the same conditions. As these variations seem of no special use to the plants they cannot have been influenced by natural selection. Of their cause we are quite ignorant we cannot even attribute them as in the last class of cases to any proximate agency such as relative position. I will give only a few instances. It is so common to observe on the same plant flowers differently tetramerous pentamerous &c. that I need not give examples but as numerical variations are comparatively rare when the parts are few I may mention that according to De Candolle the flowers of *Laportea bracteata* may bear either two sepals with four petals (which is

the common type with poppies) or three sepals with six petals. The manner in which the petals are folded in the bud is in most groups a very constant morphological character but Prof. Asa Gray states that with some species of *Mimulus* the aestivation is almost as frequently that of the Rhinanthideae as of the Antirrhinideae to which latter tribe the genus belongs. Auguste de Saint Hilaire gives the following cases the genus *Zanthoxylon* belongs to a division of the Rutaceae with a single ovary

the capsule has been described as unilocular or trilocular and in *M. mutabile* *Une lame plus ou moins large s'étend entre les pericarpe et le placenta*. In the flowers of *Saponaria officinalis* Dr. Masters has observed instances of both marginal and free central placentation. Lastly Saint Hilaire found towards the southern extreme of the range of *Gomphia oleaformis* two forms which he did not at first doubt were distinct species but he subsequently saw them growing on the same bush and he then added

Voilà donc dans un même individu des loges et un style qui se rattachent tantôt à un aréreticale et tantôt à un gynobae.

We thus see that with plants many morphological changes may be attributed to the laws of growth and the interaction of parts independently of natural selection. But with respect to Nageli's doctrine of an innate tendency towards perfection or progressive development can it be said in the case of these strongly pronounced variations that the plants have been caught in the act of progressing towards a higher state of development? On the contrary I should infer from the mere fact of the parts in question differing or varying greatly on the same plant that such modifications

said to raise an organism in the natural selection and in the case of the imperfect, closed flowers above described if any new principle has to be invoked it must be one of retrogression rather than of progression and so it must be with many parasitic and degenerated animals. We are ignorant of the exciting cause of the above specified modifications but if the unknown cause were to act almost uniformly for a length of time we may infer that the result would be almost uniform and in this case all the indi-

valuable fth species wld be modified in the sam mann

From th fact fth aboe characters being important fth welfare of th spec s, any llt n t n s which occ rred in th m wo ld

defin stan th tiat e d asm ch as tu parts u to perfo m the functions more effic ntly

B t h n, from th nat re f the rganism and fth condit ns, modificat ns ha bee ind ced wh ch are unmpo tant f the w lf re fth spec s, th may be and ppare tly ofte l bee t as mitted in n l; the sam tate t n m rous, therwise modified, desce dants. It cann th been of m ch im portance t th gre t numb of mammals, birds, reptil wh th they were l thed w th ha f th s, scal t ha r has been

fa ts and cons d at us oppo ed t his on clus ns, n slght ff t f reason and mem ry is lft to th read who m y w h to we h th dence n both des. Wh n d sc ssing

is ft ass med to be f lgh tal importance t th pec es. Thus, as I am in lined t be li e, m rph l cal diff re ce wh ch w co sud as important— ch as th rrang m t of th l s, th d rns ns fth fl w f th an m th po t fth rules, &c.— first ppeared in many case as il t ting ariat ns, which soo lat becam co ta t thr gh th nat re fth rganism and fth rroundin co ditions, as w ll as thro h th int rcrossing f dist ct undi d als, b t t thro gh nat ral selecti f as these m rph l g al charact rs d t affect th har f th pec s, y slght d t ns t m could th ha bee g rned o ac cum l ted thro l th latt gen y It is a trang result wh ch w th arri t, am ly that haract rs f lgh tal importance t th spec es, are th m t mpo tant t th ystem t b t, as shall l reafte see wh n treat fth g t prin pl f lassifica t n, this is by m ans so parad xical as t ma t first ppear

With gi w h good d nce of th at ce gan be g s f an unnat tend enc t ward progress d l pment, y t th ecessarily fl s, as l b t mpted t l m th l furth hapt thro gh th co tin ed actio of nat ral selecti n. k th best

der D m t t t gre t l gth than as I b li any th rit r H liken se ft n assumes th t I ttr b t n thng t ar t n independ tly f tural selecti whereas in th w h j t ref rred to I b collected a gre t numb f w ll e tabl hed case than can b f und in an th w h kn wn to me. My j dgm nt may n t be tru tw rthy but aft read n, w th care Mr M art book, and compa g ach secti n w th wh t f h e said th sam head I n bef ref l t so tro g ly co ced fth g ral truth f the con cl ns b ar ed t, bject, of co rse, in sou nt cat bject t m ch p r t al ro All Mr M art objecti ns will b h v been, consid ed in th prese t lum The ne n wpo t wh ch ppe rs to b truck many read rs s, th t t al select n incompe t t t account f th pent stag f use ful tru t res. Thus bject int m t ly con nected w th t fth grad t n f ch c t rs, ft n accompan ed by a chang f f

art select th se wh ch are th m t illus trat as w t f pac pre nts me from co d g ll

Th graff by t l l ty stat re m l I n g t d eck, f re l g s, h ad and to gu has ts

whole frame beautifully adapted for browsing on the higher branches of trees. It can thus obtain food beyond the reach of the other Ungulata or hoofed animals inhabiting the same country, and this must be a great advantage to it during dearths. The Niatas cattle in S America show us how small a difference in

grass but from the projection of the lower jaw they cannot during the often recurrent droughts browse on the twigs of trees reeds &c. to which food the common cattle and horses are then driven so that at the same times the Niatas perish if not fed by their owners. Before coming to Mr Mivart's objection it may be well to explain once again how natural selection will act in all ordinary cases. Man has modified some of his animals without necessarily having attended to special points of structure by simply preserving and breeding from the fittest individuals as with the race-horse and greyhound or as with the game-cock by breeding from the victorious birds. So under nature with the nascent giraffe the individuals which were the highest browser and were able during dearths to reach even an inch or two above the others will often have been preserved for they will have roamed over the whole country in search of food. That the individuals of the same species often differ slightly in the relative lengths of all their parts may be seen in many works of natural history in which careful measurements are given. These slight proportional differences due to the laws of growth and variation are not of the slightest use or importance to most species. But it will have been otherwise with the nascent giraffe considering its probable habits of life for those individuals which had some one part or several parts of their bodies rather more elongated than usual would generally have survived. These will have intercrossed and left off print either inheriting the same bodily peculiarities, or with a tendency to vary again in the same manner whilst the individuals less favoured in the same respect will have been the most liable to perish.

We here see that there is no need to separate single pairs, as man does, when the methodically improve a breed. Natural selection will preserve and thus separate all the superior individuals, allowing them freely to intercross, and will destroy all the inferior individuals. By this process long-continued which exactly cor-

responds with what I have called unconscious selection by man combined no doubt in a most important manner with the inherited effects of the increased use of parts, it seems to me almost certain that an ordinary hoofed quadruped might be converted into a giraffe.

To this conclusion Mr Mivart brings forward two objections. One is that the increased size of the body would obviously require an increased supply of food and he considers it as

very problematical whether the disadvantages thence arising would not, in times of scarcity more than counterbalance the advantages. But as the giraffe does actually exist in large numbers in S Africa, and as some of the largest antelopes in the world taller than an ox abound there why should we doubt that, as far as size is concerned intermediate gradations could formerly have existed there abundantly.

Other hoofed quadrupeds of the country would have been of some advantage to the nascent giraffe. Nor must we overlook the fact, that increased bulk would act as a protection against almost all kinds of prey excepting the lion and against this animal its tall neck—and the taller the better—would as Mr Chauncey Wright has remarked serve as a watch tower

determined by any one advantage but by the union of all great and small.

Mr Mivart then asks (and this is his second objection) if natural selection be so potent and if high browsing be so great an advantage why has not any other hoofed quadruped acquired a long neck and lofty stature besides the giraffe and in a lesser degree the camel guanaco and macrauchenia? Or again why has not any member of the group acquired a long proboscis? With respect to S Africa, which is as formerly inhabited by numerous herds of the giraffe the answer is not difficult and can be illustrated by an illustration. In every meadow in England in which trees grow we see the lower branches trimmed or planed to an exact level by the browsing of the horses or cattle and what advantage would it be for instance to keep if kept there, to acquire slightly longer necks? In every district some

on kind of animal will almost certainly be able to browse higher than the other and this almost equally certain that this kind also could have been selected for the purpose through natural selection and the effects of increased use. In S. Africa the competition of browsing trees like branches of the acacias and other trees must be between giraffe and giraffe, and not with the other ungulate animals.

Why in the quarters of the wild are us animals belong to this same kind have not acquired either an elongated neck, proboscis, cannot be denied and red but this is as unreasonable to expect that it can we take the question, as why some of the history of man has not occurred in the country whilst it did in another. We are reluctant with respect to the conditions which determine the number and range of each species and we cannot deny to conjecture what changes of the world befall it to increase some and to try. We can, I see in the German that various causes might have intervened with the development of the giraffe, proboscis. The reach of the flag to the ground is not (will) out of the world of which hoofed animals are generally constructed to imply greatly increased food and we know that some areas support a great deal of large quadrupeds, for instance S. Africa, though it is so luxuriant. In S. Africa also, with the most abundant parallel of Greece. What the world be so different from the world of the last few years? The world has been so much more useful for the purpose than the present time. With the case of man has been, we can see that certain of the world has been much more useful than the world of the development of so large quadrupeds as the giraffe.

I find that an animal which would require to be constructed especially and largely developed almost as if it were a bird, that is, the parts of the body would be modified and coordinated. Although every part of the body serves slightly, it does not follow that the necessary parts of the body are in the right direction and to the right degree. With the different pieces of food selected animals work with the parts are in different manner and degree and that some species are more highly variable than others. It is not the fitting animals to arise, it does not follow that natural selection would be able to act on them, and produce the structure which partly would be beneficial to

the first to be used

retarded in modification of a particular structure for obtaining food. Lastly, natural selection is a slow process, and the same favorable

we cannot explain why in many parts of the world, hoofed quadrupeds are not as

giving has been advanced by many writers. In each case are the uses, besides the general ones, to be indicated. Probably it is of red with the acquisition of the natural selection of the fruits, which the thought would be the best of certain species. One writer asks, why has not the ostrich acquired the power of flight? But a moment's reflection will show what an enormous supply of food would be necessary to get this bird from the desert free to move through the body through the air. Oceanic islands are inhabited by birds and seals, but by the terrestrial mammals, as some of these birds are peculiar species, though many of the islands are uninhabited by the present times. The reference to Cuvier asks, and assigns certain reasons: animals which have not seals and bats grow in the islands fitted to the land. But seals would necessarily be first converted into terrestrial animals. I consider that seals and birds are terrestrial insects, so animals of the first kind would be prey for the birds and insects would serve as food, but the world already be largely predated by the reptiles, birds, which fit color and abundance of most oceanic islands. Good and the first kind with each tag beneficial to change of species, will be favorable to the certain peculiar conditions. A certain terrestrial animal, by occasion of the food, shall we see

find oceanic islands the conditions favorable to the gradual reconstruction into a terrestrial form. But, as the first kind shown, probably acquired the power by the first gliding through the air from tree to tree, like the so

called flying squirrels for the sake of escaping from their enemies or for avoiding falls but when the power of true flight had once been acquired it would never be reconverted back at least for the above purposes into the less efficient power of gliding through the air. Bats might indeed like many birds have had their wings greatly reduced in size or completely lost through disuse but in this case it would be necessary that they should first have acquired the power of running quickly on the ground by the aid of their hind legs alone so as to compete with birds or other ground animals and for such a change a bat seems singularly ill fitted. These conjectural remarks have been made merely to show that a transition of structure with each step beneficial is a highly complex affair and that there is nothing strange in a transition not having occurred in any particular case.

Lastly more than one writer has asked why have some animals had their mental powers more highly developed than others as such development would be advantageous to all? Why have not apes acquired the intellectual powers of man? Various causes could be assigned but as they are conjectural and their relative probability cannot be weighed it would be useless to give them. A definite answer to the latter question ought not to be expected seeing that no one can solve the simpler problem why of two races of savages one has risen higher in the scale of civilisation than the other and this apparently implies increased brain power.

We will return to Mr. Mivart's other objections. Insects often resemble for the sake of protection various objects such as green or decayed leaves, dead twigs, bits of lichen, flowers, spines, excrement of birds, and living insects but to this latter point I shall hereafter recur. The resemblance is often wonderfully close and is not confined to colour but extends to form and even to the manner in which the insects hold themselves. The caterpillars which project motionless like dead twigs from the bushes on which they feed offer an excellent instance of a resemblance of this kind. The cases of the imitation of such objects as the excrement of birds are rare and exceptional. On this head Mr. Mivart remarks: "As according to Mr. Darwin's theory there is a constant tendency to indefinite variation and as the minute inappreciable variations will be in all directions they must tend to neutralise each other and at first to form such unstable modifica-

tion as never build up a sufficiently appreciable resemblance to a leaf, bamboo or other object for Natural Selection to seize upon and perpetuate."

But in all the foregoing cases the insects in their original state no doubt presented some rude and accidental resemblance to an object commonly found in the stations frequented by them. Nor is this at all improbable considering the almost infinite number of surrounding objects and the diversity in form and colour of the hosts of insects which exist. As some rude resemblance is necessary for the first start, we can understand how it is that the larger and higher animals do not (with the exception as far as I know of one fish) resemble for the sake of protection special objects but only the surface which commonly surrounds them and this chiefly in colour. Assuming that an insect originally happened to resemble in some degree a dead twig or a decayed leaf and that it varied slightly in many ways then all the variations which rendered the insect at all more like any such object and thus favoured its escape would be preserved whilst other variations would be neglected and ultimately lost or if they rendered the insect at all less like the imitated object they would be eliminated. There would indeed be force in Mr. Mivart's objection if we were to attempt to account for the above resemblances independently of natural selection through the fluctuating variability but as the case stands there is none.

Nor can I see any force in Mr. Mivart's difficulty with respect to the last touches of perfection in the mimicry as in the case given by Mr. Wallace of a walking stick insect (*Ceorix laceatus*) which resembles a stick grown over by a creeping moss or *Jungermannia*. So close was this resemblance that a native Dyak maintained that the foliaceous excrescences were really moss. Insects are preyed on by birds and other enemies whose sight is probably sharper than ours and every grade of resemblance helped an insect to escape notice or detect it would tend toward it. I presume that if the insects were perfect the resemblance would be so much less for the next. Considering the nature of the difficulties between the species in the group which includes the above *Ceorix* there is nothing surprising in this insect having varied in the slight similarities on its surface and in the colour becoming more or less green-coloured for in every group the

constantly uses it for this purpose. There are other species as I hear from Mr Salvin in which the lamellæ are considerably less developed than in the common duck but I do not know whether they use their beaks for sifting the water.

Turning to another group of the same family in the Egyptian goose (*Chenalopex*) the beak closely resembles that of the common ducks but the lamellæ are not so numerous nor so distinct from each other nor do they project so much inwards yet the goose as I am informed by Mr E. Bartlett uses its bill like a duck by throwing the water out at the

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are much coarser than in the common duck almost confluent about 27 in number on each side and terminating upward in teeth like knobs. The palate is also covered with hard rounded knobs. The edges of the lower mandible are serrated with teeth much more prominent coarser and harper than in the duck. The common goose does not sift the water but uses its beak exclusively for tearing or cutting herbage for which purpose it is so well fitted that it can crop grass closer than almost any other animal. There are other species of geese as I hear from Mr Bartlett in which the lamellæ are less developed than in the common goose.

We thus see that a member of the duck family with a beak constructed like that of the common goose and adapted solely for grazing

goose—this into one like the common duck—and lastly into one like the shoveller provided with a beak almost exclusively adapted for sifting the water for this bird could hardly use any part of its beak except the hooked tip for seizing or tearing solid food. The beak of a goose as I may call it might also be converted by small changes into one provided with prominent recurved teeth like those of the ner-ganser (a member of the same family) serving for the widely different purpose of securing live fish.

Returning to the ducks the *Hypodendro* is destitute of true teeth in an efficient condition but its palate is roughened according to Lacepede with small unequal hard points of horn. There is, therefore nothing improbable in supposing that some early ceta-

cean form was provided with similar points of horn on the palate but rather more regularly placed and which like the knobs on the beak of the goose aided it in seizing or tearing its food. If so it will hardly be denied that the points might have been converted through variation and natural selection into lamellæ as well developed as those of the Egyptian goose in which case they would have been used both for seizing objects and for sifting the water then into lamellæ like those of the domestic duck and so onwards until they became as well constructed as those of the shoveller in which case they would have served exclusively as a sifting apparatus. From this stage in which the lamellæ would be two-thirds of the length of the plates of balæen in the *Balenoptera rostrata* gradations which may be observed in still-existing cetaceans lead us onward to the enormous plates of balæen in the Greenland whale. Nor is there the least reason to doubt that each step in this scale might have been as serviceable to certain ancient cetaceans with the functions of the parts slowly changing during the progress of development as are the gradations in the beaks of the different existing members of the duck family. We should bear in mind that each species of duck is subjected to a severe struggle for existence and that the structure of every part of its frame must be well adapted to its conditions of life.

The Neuronectic or flat fish are remarkable for their asymmetrical bodies. They rest on one side—in the greater number of species on the left but in some on the right side and occasionally reversed. A few specimens occur. The lower or resting surface resembles at first sight the ventral surface of an ordinary fish it is of a white colour less developed in many ways than the upper side with the lateral fins often of small size. But the eyes for the most remarkable peculiarity for they are both placed on the upper side of the head. During early youth however they tend opposite to each other and the whole body is then symmetrical with the sides equally coloured. Soon the eye proper to the lower side begins to glide slowly round the eye of the upper side but to the tips of the skull as various forms show that to be the case. It is obvious that unless the eye itself is travel round it could not be used by the fish while lying in its habitual position on one side. The lower eye could also have been liable to be attracted by the sandy bottom. That the

examined. The chief advantages thus gained seem to be protection from the ravenous, and facility of feeding on the ground. The difference in members, however, of the family present, as Schindler remarks, is so serious for the hatching ground animals from *Hippoboscus* to *Proctos* which does not in any considerable degree alter the shape in which the leaves of the oar turn to the soles, which are thereby thrown to one side.

My art has taken place and marks that sudden simultaneous and firm to the point of the yes hardly co

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that they often then train the lower so as to look upwards and the kulls are thus rendered rattle-rooked. The fishes live on the bottom of the sea in a

the

the head and the position of the eyes is different from the position of the eyes in the

far from clear. It seems, however, that the change in the present transformation is rather than been

and the species of the right of Malm

the head cannot be retained in the position, going to the excessive depth of the body. The small size of the lateral fins, and to the being destitute of a unbladder. If we see the growth of the fish, the bottom of the head. Whilst thus at rest, the fish is not as Malm observed that the fish is, to serve as the head and the body so gradually the pressure is against the pipe part of the fish. The fish is able to be the esophageal becomes, as would be plainly seen, a temporary contraction of the breadth. On occasion Malm saw the fish use and direct the body through an angular distance of about six degrees.

When Malm said that the skull of the fish is very agile and flexible, so that it readily yielded to use in action. It also knows the difference between the head and the body, that the head is and altered in shape of the skull in scales become mainly contracted the head-case some accident. With the long-eared ables, the arlophids and the darters, the whole drag forward all the bones of the skull on the same side, of which I have given a figure. Malm states that the early ichthyosaurs perched

the bottom and swims along all through the water in the fish the two lateral fins are said to be so placed in the great majority of fishes. D. G. L. has observed that the lateral fins of Malm's paper are marked that the fish is a very complete explanation of the abnormal condition of the fish.

When we see that the first stage of the transition from the fish to the land is the fish. Mr. Malm considers the world as being, so, may be attributed to the habit of the fish to be fixed to the under side of the plates, and a run to look up and both yes, whilst resting on the bottom. We may also attribute to the fish the effects of the fact of the fish in the sea. The fish of flat fish being bent towards the lower side, with the whole of the body and in the effect of the fish, the fish is the head, than the fish of the fish as Dr. Traquair proposes, feeding with the ground. The use of the hand will account for the less developed and the fish which is half of the body and the lateral fins. The fish, however, thinks that the red eel is of the fish is an advantage to the fish as the fish is so much so much of the fish with the larger fins also. I have the fish in the proportion of the fish to the

in the upper halves of the two jaws of the plaice to twenty five to thirty in the lower halves may likewise be accounted for by disuse From the colourless state of the ventral surface of most fishes and of many other animals we may reasonably suppose that the absence of colour in flat fish on the side whether it be the right or left which is undermost is due to the exclusion of light But it cannot be supposed that the peculiar speckled appearance of the upper side of the sole so like the sandy bed of the sea or the power in some species as recently shown by Louchet of changing their colour in accordance with the surrounding surface or the presence of bony tubercles on the upper side of

at general shape of the body of these fishes and many other peculiarities to their habits of life. We should keep in mind as I have before insisted that the inherited effects of the increased use of

It will thus be preserved as will those individuals which inherit in the highest degree the effects of the increased and beneficial use of any part. How much to attribute in each particular case to the effects of use and how much to natural selection it seems impossible to decide.

“ A monkey has been converted into a wonderfully perfect prehensile organ and serves as a fifth hand. A reviewer who agrees with Mr Vivart in every detail remarks on this structure. It is impossible to believe that in any number of ages the first slight independent tendency to grasp could preserve the lives of the individuals possessing it or favour their chance of having and of rearing off spring. But there is no necessity for any such belief. Habit and thus almost implies that some benefit great or small is thus derived would in all probability suffice for the work. Brehm saw the young of an African monkey (*Cercopithecus*) clinging to the under surface of their mother by their hands and at the same time they curled their tails round the

branches of a bush placed in the cage and thus aided themselves in climbing I have received an analogous account from Dr Günther who has seen a mouse thus suspend itself. If the harvest mouse had been more strictly arboreal, it would perhaps have had its tail rendered structurally prehensile as is the case with some members of the same order. Why *Circopithecus*, considering its habits whilst young has not become thus provided it would be difficult to say. It is however possible that the long tail of this monkey may be of more service to it as a balancing organ in making its prodigious leaps than as a prehensile organ.

The mammary glands are common to the whole class of mammals and are indispensable for their existence they must therefore have been developed at an extremely remote period and we can know nothing positively about their manner of development Mr Mivart asks Is it conceivable that the young of any animal was ever suckled?

and of its mother And even if one was so what chance was there of the perpetuation of such a variation But the case is not I repeat fairly It is admitted by most evolutionists that mammals are descended from a marsupial form and if so the mammary glands will have been at first developed within the marsupial sack In the case of the fish (Hippocampus) the eggs are hatched and the young are reared for a time within a sack of this nature and an American naturalist Mr Lockwood believes from what he has seen of the development of the young that they are nourished by a secretion from the cutaneous gland of the sack Now with the early progenitors of man it is almost before they develop to be thus designated is it not at least possible that the young might have been similarly nourished And in this case the individuals which secreted a fluid in some degree or manner the most nutritious so as to partake of the nature of milk would in the long run

salivary glands which are the homologues of the mammary gland would have been improved or rendered more effective in accordance with the widely stated principle of specialisation that the gland is over a certain place of the neck should have become more highly developed than the remainder and they

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would then have formed a breast but at first
without nipple as we see in the Outh hyn
chus, the base of the mammalian ones.
Thro
tain

in part through compensating growth the
effects of selection

The development of the mammary gland
would have been for service, and could not
have been effected through natural selection,
unless they young at the same time were able to
partake of the secret. There is greater
difficulty in understanding how young mam-
mal have instinctively learnt to suck the
breast, than in understanding how unhatched
chickens learn to break the egg, or how
tappage amidst with their peculiarly adapted

formed of three separate arms, naturally fitted
together and placed on the summit of a flexible
tissue moved by muscles. These forceps
can firmly seize hold of any object and Alex-
ander Agassiz has seen an Echidna's
urchin rapidly pass a particle of cement
from forceps to forceps down the tail of
its body in order that its shell hold it be-
fitted. But there is no doubt that the de-
velopment of all kinds, they perform other
functions and do of these apparently de-
fined

various functions, such as, and how could

in the fish, the lips, which are modified of piping
On the head Mr. M. art remarks. Did not
special purposes exist, they would not
fallibly be held by the intrusion of the milk
into the udder. But there is special pro-

The larynx is so long that it rises
up to the posterior end of the nasal passage
and is thus enabled to give free exit to the
air from the lungs, but the milk passes harm-
lessly, each side of the long larynx
and so safely attain the gullet and the stomach.
Mr. M. art asks how did it select re-
mains that it kangaroo (most of the
mammals that assume the tail year
are deduced from a marsupial form) the least
perfect innocent and harmless trait.
It may be generally said that the
tail is certainly of high importance to many

animals, and readily be used thus if
free as long as the larva. I read the nasal
passage of the sloth. Flo has suggested
that the tail is the organ of prehension
for the animal in its solid food.

When we turn to the rate of the
development of the animal kingdom. The
tail is mata (tailfish, sea urchins, &c.)
are furnished with remarkable gans, called
pedicellariæ which consist, with the de-
veloped, of (dactyl) forceps—the tail, of the

tridactyle forceps, immovably fixed to the
base, but capable of snapping action, ce-
tainly exist in some starfishes and the
gills if they serve at least in part, as means
of defence. Mr. Agassiz to which the
nassid is modified from the infusorian
the subject informs me that there is the
starfishes, in which one of the three arms of

the bill is described by M. Perrie as bearing
two kinds of pedicellariæ resembling the
fishes, and the other those of Spatangus
and chace always resting as if
ing the man's preparation of the
tissues, through the abortion of one of the two
last pair.

With respect to the step by which the
current organ has been evolved Mr. Agas-
siz infers from the various arches and the
Mullerian tubules in the fish and a
hins the pedicellariæ must undoubtedly be
looked at as modified pines. Thus many be-
infers from the manner of development in the
development of the malgand perfect series

extend even to the manner in which ordinary spines and pedicellariæ with their supporting calcareous rods are articulated to the shell. In certain genera of star fishes the very combinations needed to show that the pedicellariæ are only modified branching spines may be found. Thus we have fixed spines with three equi-distant, serrated moveable branches articulated to near their bases and higher up on the same spine three other moveable branches. Now when the latter arise from the summit of a spine they form in fact a rude tridactyle pedicellaria and such may be seen on the same spine together with the three lower branches. In this case the identity in nature between the arms of the pedicellariæ and the moveable branches of a spine is unmistakable. It is generally admitted that the ordinary spines serve as a protection and if so there can be no reason to doubt that those furnished with serrated and moveable branches likewise serve for the same purpose and they would thus serve still more effectively as soon as by meeting together they acted as a prehensile or snapping apparatus. Thus every gradation from an ordinary fixed spine to a fixed pedicellaria would be of service.

In certain genera of star fishes these organs instead of being fixed or borne on an immoveable support are placed on the summit of a flexible and muscular though short, stem and in this case they probably subserve some additional function besides defence. In the sea urchins the steps can be followed by which a fixed spine becomes articulated to the shell and is thus rendered moveable. I wish I had space here to give a fuller abstract of Mr Agassiz's interesting observations on the development of the pedicellariæ. All possible gradations as he adds may likewise be found between the pedicellariæ of the star fishes and the hooks of the ophiurians, another group of Echinodermata and again between the pedicellariæ of sea urchins and the anchors of the Holothuriæ also belonging to the same great class.

ferent species. In their most perfect condition they curiously resemble the head and beak of a vulture in miniature seated on a neck and capable of movement, as is likewise the lower jaw or mandible. In one species observed by

me all the avicularia on the same branch often moved simultaneously backwards and forwards with the lower jaw widely open through an angle of about 90° in the course of five seconds and their movement caused the whole polyzoot to tremble. When the jaws are touched with a needle they seize it so firmly that the branch can thus be haken.

Mr Mivart adduces this case chiefly on account of the supposed difficulty of organs, namely the avicularia of the Polyzoot and the pedicellariæ of the Echinodermata, which be

as far as structure is concerned I can see no similarity between tridactyle pedicellariæ and avicularia. The latter resemble somewhat more closely the chelæ or pincers of crustaceans and Mr Mivart might have adduced with equal appropriateness this resemblance as a special difficulty or even their resemblance to the head and beak of a bird. The avicularia are believed by Mr Busk, Dr Smitt, and Dr Nitsche—naturalists who have carefully stud-

between a zooid and an avicularium. It is therefore impossible to conjecture by what serviceable gradations the one could have been converted into the other but it by no means follows from this that such gradations have not existed.

As the chelæ of crustaceans resemble in some degree the avicularia of Polyzoot, both serving as pincers, it may be worth while to show that with the former a long series of serviceable gradations still exists. In the first and simplest stage the terminal segment of a limb shuts down either on the square summit of the broad penultimate segment, or against one whole side and is thus enabled to catch hold of an object but the limb still serves as an organ of locomotion. We next find one corner of the broad penultimate segment slightly prominent, sometimes furnished with irregular teeth and against these the terminal segment shuts down. By an increase in the size of this projection with its slope as well as that of the terminal segment slightly modified and improved, the pincers are rendered more and more perfect until we have at last an instrument as ef-

Scient as the claw of a lobster and all these gradations can be actually traced.

Besides the *vicularia*, the *Polytrus* possess curious organs called *vibracula*. These generally consist of long bristles, capable of movement and easily extended. In one species examined by me the *vibracula* were slightly curved and serrated along the outer margin and all of them on the same *polytrus* of a moved simultaneously so that, acting like long oars, the swept branch rapidly across the object glass of a microscope. When a branch was placed on its face the *vibracula* became entangled, and the insect made violent efforts to free themselves. They are supposed to serve as defence and may be seen, as Mr. B. J. remarks, "to sweep slowly and carefully the surface of the *polytrus* removing what might be noxious to the delicate inhabitants of the cells between their tentacula are protruded." The *vicularia* like the *vibracula*, probably serve for defence but they also catch and hold small living animals which it is believed are afterwards swept by the currents within reach of the tentacula of the zooids. Some species are provided with *vicularia* and *vibracula* some with *vicularia* alone and a few with *vibracula* alone.

It is not easy to imagine two objects more different in appearance than a bristle or *vibraculum*, and an *vicularium* like the head of a bird yet they are almost certainly homologous and have been developed from the same common source namely zooid with its crown. Hence we can understand how it is that these organs gradually in some cases, as I am informed by Mr. Busch, into each other. Thus the *vicularia* of several species of *Lepræa*, the moveable mandible is so much produced and is so like a beak that the presence of the upper or fixed beak alone serves to determine even its *vicularian* nature. The *vibracula* may have been directly developed from the tips of the *vicularia*, whilst the *vicularia* passed through the *vicularian* stage but it seems more probable that the *vicularia* passed through two stages as during the early stages of the transformation, the other parts of the cell with the increased zooid could hardly have disappeared at once. In many cases the *vicularia* have grown up to support the fixed beak though this may not in some species be quite accurate. Thus some of the development of the *vibracula*, if true, which is interesting for anyone that all the species provided with *vicularia* had

become extinct, no one with the most vivid imagination would ever have thought that the *vicularia* had originally existed as part of an organ, resembling a bird's head or an irregular box or hood. It is interesting to see two such widely different organs developed from a common origin and as the moveable tip of the cell serves as a protection to the zooid, there is no difficulty in believing that all the gradations, by which the tip became converted first into the lower mandible of an *vicularium* and then into an isolated bristle likewise served as a protection in different ways and under different circumstances.

In the vegetable kingdom Mr. Mivart only alludes to two cases, namely the structure of the *ovules* of orchids, and the movements of climbing plants. With respect to the former he says, "The explanation of their origin is deemed thoroughly unsatisfactory—thoroughly insufficient to explain the inexplicable, infinitesimal beginnings of structures which are of utility only when they are considerably developed." As I have fully treated this subject in another work, I will here give only a few details on one aspect of the most striking peculiarities of the flowers of orchids, namely their *pollinia*. A *pollinium* in which highly developed consists of a mass of pollen-grains, affixed to an elastic foot stalk or caudicle, and thus to a little mass of extruded viscid matter. The *pollinia* are by this means transported by insects from one flower to the stigma of another. In some orchids there is no caudicle to the pollen masses, and the grains are merely tied together by fine threads but as these are not confined to the *ovules*, the need not here be considered. I mention that at the base of the orchidaceous series, in *Cypripedium*, we can see how the threads were probably first developed. In other orchids the threads connect one end of the pollen-masses and thus forms the first or nascent trace of a caudicle. That this is the origin of the caudicle even when of considerable length and highly developed, we have good evidence in the aborted pollen-grains which can sometimes be detected imbedded within the central and solid parts.

With respect to the second chief peculiarity, namely the little mass of viscid matter attached to the end of the caudicle, a long series of gradations can be specified, each of great service to the plant. In most flowers belonging to other orders the stigma secretes little viscid matter. In certain orchids similar to

cid matter is secreted but in much larger quantities by one alone of the three stigmas and this stigma perhaps in consequence of the copious secretion is rendered sterile. When an insect visits a flower of this kind it rubs off some of the viscid matter and thus at the same time drags away some of the pollen grains. From this simple condition which differs but little from that of a multitude of common flowers there are endless gradations—to species in which the pollen mass terminates in a very short free caudicle—to others in which the caudicle becomes firmly attached to the viscid matter with the sterile stigma itself much modified. In this latter case we have a pollinium in its most highly developed and perfect condition. He who will carefully examine the flowers of orchids for himself will not deny the existence of the above series of gradations—from a mass of pollen grains merely tied together by threads with the stigma differing but little from that of an ordinary flower to a highly complex pollinium admirably adapted for transportal by insects nor will he deny that all the gradations in the several species are admirably adapted in relation to the general structure of each flower for its fertilisation by different insects. In this and in almost every other case the enquiry may be pushed further backwards and it may be asked how did the stigma of an ordinary flower become viscid but as we do not know the full history of any one group of beings it is as useless to ask as it is hopeless to attempt answering such questions.

We will now turn to climbing plants. These

provided with tendrils. In these two latter classes the stems have generally but not always lost the power of twining though they retain the power of revolving which the tendrils likewise possess. The gradations from leaf-climbers to tendril-bearers are wonderfully close and certain plants may be indifferently placed in either class. But in ascending the series from simple twiners to leaf-climbers an important quality is added namely sensitiveness to a touch by which means the foot stalks of the leaves or flowers or these modified and converted into tendrils are excited to bend round and clasp the touching object. He who will read my memoir on these plants will I think admit that all the many gradations in function and structure between

simple twiners and tendril-bearers are in each case beneficial in a high degree to the species. For instance it is clearly a great advantage to a twining plant to become a leaf-climber and it is probable that every twiner which possessed leaves with long foot stalks would have been developed into a leaf-climber if the foot stalks had possessed in any slight degree the requisite sensitiveness to a touch.

As twinning is the simplest means of ascending a support and forms the basis of our series it may naturally be asked how did plants acquire this power in an incipient degree afterwards to be improved and increased through natural selection. The power of twining depends firstly on the stems whilst young being extremely flexible (but this is a character common to many plants which are not climbers) and secondly on their continually bending to all points of the compass one after the other in succession in the same order. By this movement the stems are inclined to all sides and are made to move round and round. As soon as the lower part of a stem strikes against any object and is stopped the upper part still goes on bending and revolving and thus necessarily twines round and up the support. The revolving movement ceases after the early growth of each shoot. As in many widely separated families of plants single species and single genera possess the power of revolving and have thus become twiners they must have independently acquired it and cannot have inherited it from

common with plants which did not climb and that this had afforded the basis for natural selection to work on and improve. When I made this prediction I knew of only one imperfect case namely of the young flower peduncle of a *Maurandia* which revolved slightly and irregularly like the stems of twining plants but without making any use of this habit. Soon afterwards Fritz Müller discovered that the young stems of an *Ilisia* and of a *Limonium*—plants which do not climb and are widely separated in the natural system—revolved plainly though irregularly and I at last felt that I had reason to suspect that this occurs with some other plants. The slight movements appear to be of no service to the plants in question anyhow they are not of the least use in the way of climbing which is the point that concerns us. Nevertheless we can see that if the stems of these plants had been flexible and

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cid matter is secreted but in much larger quantities by one alone of the three stigmas and thus stigma perhaps in consequence of the copious secretion is rendered sterile. When an insect visits a flower of this kind it rubs off some of the viscid matter and thus at the same time drags away some of the pollen grains from this simple condition which differs but little from that of a multitude of common flowers there are endless gradations—to species in which the pollen mass terminates in a very short free caudicle—to others in which the caudicle becomes firmly attached to the viscid matter with the sterile stigma itself much modified. In this latter case we have a pollinium in its most highly developed and perfect condition. He who will carefully examine the flowers of orchids for himself will not deny the existence of the above series of gradations—from a mass of pollen grains merely tied together by threads with the stigma differing but little from that of an ordinary flower to a highly complex pollinium admirably adapted for transportal by insects nor will he deny that all the gradations in the several species are admirably adapted in relation to the general structure of each flower for its fertilisation by different insects. In this and in almost every other case the enquiry may be pushed further backwards and it may be asked how did the stigma of an orchid

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sharp sighted enemies In certain species of whales there is a tendency to the formation of irregular little points of horn on the palate and it seems to be quite within the scope of natural selection to preserve all favourable variations, until the points were converted first into lamellated knobs or teeth like those on the beak of a goose — then into short lamellæ like those of the domestic ducks — and then into lamella, as perfect as those of the shoveller-duck — and finally into the gigantic plates of baleen, as in the mouth of the Greenland whale In the family of the ducks the lamellæ are first used as teeth then partly as teeth and partly as a sifting apparatus and at last almost exclusively for this latter purpose

With such structures as the above lamellæ of horn or whalebone habit or use can have done little or nothing as far as we can judge towards their development On the other hand the transparent of the lower eye of a flat fish to the upper side of the head and the formation of a prehensile tail may be attributed almost wholly to continued use together with inheritance With respect to

the nutritive fluid and that the glands were improved in function through natural selection and concentrated into a confined area in which case they would have formed a mamma There is no more difficulty in understanding how the branched pines of some ancient conifer which served as a defence became developed through natural selection into tridactyle pedicellariæ than in understanding the development of the

for locomotion In the avicularia and vibracula of the Polyzoa we have organs widely different in appearance developed from the same source and with the vibracula we can understand how the successive gradations might have been of service With the pollinia of orchids the threads which originally served to tie together the pollen grains can be traced cohering into caudicles and the steps can likewise be followed by which viscid matter such as that secreted by the stigmas of ordinary flowers and I still subserving nearly but not quite the same purpose, became attached to the free ends of the caudicles — all these gradations being of manifest benefit to the plants in question

With respect to climbing plants, I need not repeat what has been so lately said

It has often been asked if natural selection be so potent, why has not this or that structure been gained by certain species, to which it would apparently have been advantageous But it is unreasonable to expect a precise answer to such questions, considering our ignorance of the past history of each species, and of the conditions which at the present day determine its numbers and range In most cases only general reasons but in some few cases special reasons can be assigned Thus to adapt a species to new habits of life many co-ordinated modifications are almost indispensable and it may often have happened that the requisite parts did not vary in the right manner or to the right degree Many species must have been prevented from increasing in numbers through destructive agencies which stood in no relation to certain structures, which we imagine would have been gained through natural selection from appearing to us advantageous to the species In this case as the struggle for life did not depend on such structures they could not have been acquired through natural selection In many cases complex and long-enduring conditions often of a peculiar nature are necessary for the development of a structure and the requisite conditions may seldom have concurred The belief that any given structure which we think often erroneously would have been beneficial to a species would have been gained under all circumstances through natural selection is opposed to what we can understand of its manner of action Mr Mivart does not deny that natural selection has effected something but he considers it as demonstrably insufficient to account for the phenomena which I explain by its agency His chief arguments I have now been considered and the others will hereafter be considered They seem to me to partake little of the character of demonstration and to have little weight in comparison with those in favour of the power of natural selection aided by the other agencies often specified I am bound to admit that some of the facts and arguments I here used by me have been advanced for the same purpose in an article lately published in the *Medico-Chirurgico Review*

At the present day almost all naturalists admit evolution in some form Mr Mivart believes that species change through an internal force or tendency about which it is not pretended that anything is known That

species have capacity for change will be admitted by all evolutionists; but there is no need, as it seems to me to invoke any eternal force beyond the tendency to ordinary variation. Such through the aid of selection by man has given rise to many well-adapted domestic races, and which through the aid of natural selection would equally well give rise to gradual steps to natural races or species. The final result will generally have been, as already pointed, an advance, but in some few cases retrogression, in organisation.

Mr Mivart is further inclined to believe, and some naturalists agree with him, that new species manifest themselves with suddenness and by modifications appearing "once." For instance, he supposes that the differences between the extinct three-toed Hippopotamus and the horse arose suddenly. He thinks it difficult to believe that the wing of a bird was developed in any other way than by a comparatively sudden modification of marked and important kind and apparently he would extend the same view to the wings of bats and pterodactyls. This conclusion, which implies great breaks or discontinuity in the series, appears to me improbable in the highest degree.

Every one who believes in slow and gradual evolution, and of course admits that specific changes may have been as abrupt and as great as any single variation which we meet with under nature, or even under domestication. But as species are more variable when domesticated or cultivated than under their natural conditions, it is not probable that such great and abrupt variations have often occurred under nature as are known occasionally to arise under domestication. Of these latter variations several may be attributed to reversion, and the characters which thus reappear were, it is probable in many cases at first gained in a gradual manner. A still greater number must be caused by monstrosities, such as six-fingered men, porcupine men, African sweep, Nuts-eater, &c. and as they are wholly different in character from natural species, they throw very little light on our subject. Excluding such cases of abrupt variations, the few which remain would at best constitute, if found in a state of nature doubtful species, closely related to their parental types.

All reasons for doubting, whether natural species have changed as abruptly as have occasional domestic races, and for entirely disbelieving that the latter changed in the wonderful manner indicated by Mr Mivart, are as

follows. According to our experience abrupt and strongly marked variations occur in our domesticated productions, singly and at rather long intervals of time. If such occurred under nature they would be liable, as forms now explained, to be lost by accidental causes of destruction and by subsequent intercrossing and so it is known to be under domestication, unless abrupt variations of this kind are specially preserved and separated by the care of man. Hence in order that a new species should suddenly appear in the manner supposed by Mr Mivart, it is almost necessary to believe

in opposition to all analogy that several wonderfully changed individuals appeared simultaneously within the same district. This difficulty, as in the case of unconscious selection by man, is avoided on the theory of gradual evolution, through the preservation of a large number of individuals, which varied more or less in any favourable direction, and of the destruction of a large number which varied in an opposite manner.

That many species have been evolved in an extremely gradual manner there can hardly be a doubt. The species and even the genera of many large natural families are so closely allied together that it is difficult to distinguish not a few of them. On every continent in proceeding from north to south, from lowland to upland, &c., we meet with a host of closely related or representative species as we likewise do on certain distinct continents, which we have reason to believe were formerly connected. But in making these and the following remarks, I am compelled to allude to subjects hereafter to be discussed. Look at the many outlying islands round a continent, and see how many of their inhabitants can be raised only to the rank of doubtful species. So it is if we look to past times, and compare the species which have just passed away with those still living within the same areas or if we compare the fossil species embedded in the sub-stages of the same geological formation. It is indeed manifest that multitudes of species are related in the closest manner to other species that still exist, or have lately existed and it will hardly be maintained that such species have been developed in an abrupt or sudden manner. Nor would it be forgotten, when we look to the special parts of allied species, instead of to distinct species, that numerous and wonderfully fine gradations can be traced, connecting together widely different structures.

Many large groups of facts are intelligible

only on the principle that species have been evolved by very small steps for instance the fact that the species included in the larger genera are more closely related to each other and present a greater number of varieties than do the species in the smaller genera. The former are also grouped in little clusters like varieties round species and they present other analogies with varieties as was shown in our second chapter. On this same principle we can understand how it is that

... or manner are more variable than other parts of the same species. Many analogous facts all pointing in the same direction could be added.

Although very many species have almost certainly been produced by steps not greater than those separating fine varieties yet it may be maintained that some have been developed in a different and abrupt manner. Such an admission however ought not to be made without strong evidence being assigned. The vague and in some respects false analogies as they have been shown to be by Mr Chauncey Wright which have been advanced in favour of this view such as the sudden crystallisation of inorganic substances or the falling of a faceted pheroid from one facet to another hardly deserve consideration. One class of fact however namely the sudden appearance of new and distinct forms of life in our geological formations supports at first sight the belief in abrupt development. But the value of this evidence depends entirely on the perfection of the geological record in relation to periods remote in the history of the world. If the record is as fragmentary as many geologists strenuously assert there is nothing strange in new forms appearing as if suddenly developed.

Unless we admit transformations as prodigious as those advocated by Mr Mivart such as the sudden development of the wings of birds or bats or the sudden conversion of a Hipparion into a horse hardly any light is thrown by the belief in abrupt modifications on the deficiency of connecting links in our

geological formations. But against the belief in such abrupt changes embryology enters a strong protest. It is notorious that the wings of birds and bats and the legs of horses or other quadrupeds are undistinguishable at an early embryonic period and that they become differentiated by insensibly fine steps. Embryological resemblances of all kinds can be accounted for as we shall hereafter see, by the progenitors of our existing species having varied after early youth and having transmitted their newly acquired characters to their offspring at a corresponding age. The embryo is thus left almost unaffected and serves as a record of the past condition of the species. Hence it is that existing species during the early stages of their development so often resemble ancient and

have undergone such momentous and abrupt transformations as those above indicated and yet

insensibly fine steps

He who believes that some ancient form was transformed suddenly through an internal force or tendency into for instance

be denied that such abrupt and great changes of structure are widely different from those which most species apparently have undergone. He will further be compelled to believe that many structures beautifully adapted to all the other parts of the same creature and to the surrounding conditions have been suddenly produced and of such complex and wonderful co-adaptations he will not be able to assign a shadow of an explanation. He will be forced to admit that these great and sudden transformations have left no trace of their action on the embryo. To admit all this is, as it seems to me to enter into the realms of miracle and to leave those of Science.

CHAPTER VIII

INSTINCT

Many instincts are so wonderful that their development will probably appear to the reader difficult to suffice to throw my whole theory upon the premise that I have in the world the origin of the mental powers,

pillar which had completed its hammock up to the sixth tag of construction, and put it into a hammock completed up on the third tag the cat pillar simply re-performed the fourth, fifth, and sixth stages of construction. If however a cat pillar were

animals of the same class.

I will not attempt any definition of instinct. It would be easy to show that several distinct mental actions are commonly embraced by this term but to try and understand what is meant, when it is said that instinct impels the cuckoo to migrate and to lay his eggs in the bird's nest. An action, which we ourselves require experience to enable us to perform when performed by an animal, more especially by a very young one with experience and when performed by man in individuals in the same way without their knowledge of what purpose it is performed is usually said to be instinctive. But I could show that none of these characters are universal. A little of the foregoing reason, as Pierre Hube expresses it, often comes into play even with animals in the scale of nature.

Frederic C. and several of the old metaphysicians have compared instinct with habit. This comparison gives, I think, an accurate notion of the frame of mind under which an instinctive action is performed but not necessarily of its origin. If we unconsciously habituate actions are performed, indeed not rarely in direct opposition to our conscious will. Yet this may be modified by the will reason. Habit easily becomes associated with the habits, with certain periods of time and tastes of the body. When once acquired, they often remain constant throughout life. Several points of resemblance between instincts and habits could be pointed out as in repetition. I know song, so in instincts, on action follows another by sort of habit if the person be interrupted in song, he repeats another but the habit is generally forced to go back to recollect the habitual train of the habit so I believe I find it was the cat pillar which makes every complicated hammock for if he took after

work was already done for it, far from deriving any benefit from this, it was much embarrassed, and in order to complete its hammock, seemed forced to start from the third stage where it had left off and thus tried to complete the already finished work.

If we suppose an habitual character to be common to it—and it can be shown that this does sometimes happen—the resemblance between what originally was a habit and an instinct becomes so close as not to be distinguished. If Mozart instead of playing the pianoforte three years old with wonderful little practice had played a tune with practice till he might truly be said to have done instinctively. But it would be a serious error to suppose that the great number of instincts have been acquired by habit in the case of reason, and then transmitted by inheritance to succeeding generations. It can be clearly shown that the most wonderful instincts with which we are acquainted namely those of the honey-bee and of many ants, could not possibly have been acquired by habit.

It will be universally admitted that mental faculties are as important as corporeal true features of the welfare of each species, and these pre-conditions of life could be changed conditions of life it is at least possible that slight modifications of instinct might be profitable to species and if it can be shown that in time they do arrive even so little then I can see no difficulty in natural selection preserving and continually accumulating variations of instinct to any extent that was profitable. It is thus, as I believe that all the most complex and wonderful instincts have originated as modifications of corporeal true features from, and are increased by selection of habit, and are diminished or lost by disuse so I do not doubt that has been with instincts. But I believe that

the effects of habit are in many cases of subordinate importance to the effects of the natural selection of what may be called spontaneous variations of instincts—that is of variations produced by the same unknown causes which produce slight deviations of bodily structure

No complex instinct can possibly be produced through natural selection except by the slow and gradual accumulation of numerous slight yet profitable variations. Hence as in the case of corporeal structures we ought to find in nature not the actual transitional gradations by which each complex instinct has been acquired—for these could be found only in the lineal ancestors of each species—but we ought to find in the collateral lines of descent some evidence of such gradations or we ought at least to be able to show that gradations of some kind are possible and thus we certainly can do. I have been surprised to find making allowance for the instincts of animals having been but little observed except in the case of ants.

As can be discovered. Changes of instinct may sometimes be facilitated by the same species having different instincts at different periods of life or at different seasons of the year or when placed under different circumstances &c in which case either the one or the other instinct might be prevailed by natural selection. And such instances of diversity of instinct in the same species can be shown to occur in nature.

Again as in the case of corporeal structure and conformably to my theory the instinct of each species is good for itself but has never as far as we can judge been produced for the exclusive good of other. One of the strongest instances of an animal apparently performing an action for the sole good of another with which I am acquainted is that of aphides voluntarily yielding as was first observed by Huber their sweet excretion to ants that they do so voluntarily the following facts show. I removed all the ants from a group of about a dozen aphides on a dock plant, and prevented their attendance during several days. After this interval I felt sure that the aphides would want to excrete. I watched them for some time through a lens but not one excreted. I then tickled and stroked them with a hair in the same manner as well as I could as the ants do with their antennæ but not one ex-

creted. Afterwards I allowed an ant to visit them and it immediately seemed by its eager way of running about to be well aware what a rich flock it had discovered it then began to play with its antennæ on the abdomen first of one aphid and then of another and each as soon as it felt the antennæ immediately lifted up its abdomen and excreted a limpid drop of sweet juice which was eagerly devoured by the ant. Even the quite young aphides behaved in this manner showing that the action was instinctive and not the result of experience. It is certain from the observations of Huber that the aphides show no dislike to the ants if the latter be not present they are at last compelled to eject their excretion. But as the excretion is extremely viscid it is no doubt a convenience to the aphides to have it removed.

As an ant performs an action for the exclusive good of another species yet each tries to take advantage of the instincts of others, each takes advantage of the weaker bodily structure of other species. So again instincts cannot be considered as absolutely perfect but as details on this and other such points are not indispensable they may be here passed over.

As some degree of variation in instincts under a state of nature and the inheritance of such variation are indispensable for the action of natural selection as many instances as possible ought to be given but want of space prevents me. I can only assert that instincts certainly do vary—for instance the migratory instinct both in extent and direction and in its total loss. So it is with the nests of birds, which vary partly in dependence on the situations chosen and on the nature and temperature of the country inhabiting but often from causes wholly unknown to us. Audubon has given several remarkable cases of differences in the nests of the same species in the northern and southern United States. Why it has been asked if in insect building has it not granted to the bee the ability to use some other material when wax was deficient? But what other natural material could bees use? They will work as I have seen with wax harder than vermilion softened with lard. Andrew Knight observed that his bees instead of laboriously collecting propolis used a cement of wax and turpentine with which he had covered decorated trees. It has lately been

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shown that bees, instead of searching for pollen, will gladly use a very different substance—namely oatmeal. Fear of any particular enemy is certainly an instinctive quality, as may be seen in many birds, though it is to be gathered by experience, and by the sight of fear of the same enemy in other animals. The fear of man is slowly acquired. I have known fresh water by the Arabian mountains inhabited desert islands and we see an instance of this in the gland in the great wildness of all the large bird in comparison with our small bird of the large bird has been most persecuted by man. We may safely attribute the great wildness of our large bird to this cause for in uninhabited islands large birds are sometimes more fearful than small and the magpie so wary in England, tame in Norway as the hooded crow in Egypt.

That the mental qualities of animals from the same kind born in a state of nature vary much could be shown by many facts. See the case could also be added of occasional strange habits of wild animals, which if advantageous to the species, might be a guide, through the natural selection, to new instincts. But I am well aware that these general statements, that the facts in detail, will produce but a feeble effect on the reader's mind. I can only repeat my assurance, that I do not speak with too good a conscience.

Inherited Changes of Habit or Instinct in Domesticated Animals

The possibility or probability of inheritance of instincts in that of nature will be strengthened by briefly considering a few cases of domestication. We shall thus be enabled to see the part which habit and the selection of so-called pointers, and the selection of so-called pointers, have played in modifying the mental qualities of domestic animals. It is notorious how much domestic animals vary in their mental qualities. With cats, for instance, naturally taken to catching rats, and an ill-natured and these tendencies are known to be inherited. One cat, according to Mr. T. J. B. M., always catches rats in game-birds, and the hares, rabbits, and another habit, namely, to growl and almost ghastly call out to the cocks, such as the male of curio and the instances could be given of various shades of disposition and taste, and like some of the oddest tricks, associated with certain frames from all or period of time, being inherited. But it is not to be overlooked

case of the breeds of the dogs it cannot be doubted that young pointers (I have myself seen a striking instance) will sometimes point and on the other dogs the very first time that they are taken out retrieving is certainly in some degree inherited by retrievers and a tendency to run round instead of at, a flock of sheep, by shepherd dogs. I cannot see that these actions, performed without experience by the young and in nearly the same manner by each individual, performed with eager delight by each breed and without the education known to the young pointer can be more

when you go and with any training as soon as it scented the prey stand motionless like a statue, and then slowly crawl forward with a peculiar gait and another kind of rushing round instead of the habit of deer and drive the game to the distant point, we should scarcely call these actions instincts. Domestic instincts, as they may be called, are certainly far less fixed than natural instincts but they have been acted on by far less rigorous selection, and have been transmitted for an incomparably shorter period under less fixed conditions of life.

If we truly these domestic instincts, habits, and dispositions are inherited and how curiously they become mingled as well as when different breeds of dogs are crossed. Thus it is known that a cross with a bulldog is affected for many generations the colour and beauty of greyhound and a cross with a greyhound has given to a whole family of pointer-dogs a tendency to hunt hares. These domestic instincts, when thus tested by crossing resemble natural instincts, which in a like manner become curiously blended together and for a long period exhibit traces of the instincts of the parent for example Leitch describes a dog, whose great grandfather was a wolf and the dog showed traces of its wild parentage, namely, in the way of not coming in to eat till he has mastered when called.

Domestic instincts are sometimes peculiar of as actions which have become inherited solely from long continued and compulsory habits but this is not true. No would rather be the habit of catching, probably could be the habit, the tumbling pigeon to tumble—an action which, as I have witnessed, is performed

the effects of habit are in many cases of subordinate importance to the effects of the natural selection of what may be called pontaneous variations of instincts—that is of variations produced by the same unknown causes which produce slight deviations of bodily structure.

No complex instinct can possibly be produced through natural selection except by the slow and gradual accumulation of numerous slight yet profitable variations. Hence as in the case of corporeal structures we ought to find in nature not the actual transitional gradations by which each complex instinct has been acquired—for these could be found only in the lineal ancestors of each species—but we ought to find in the collateral lines of descent some evidence of such gradations or we ought at least to be able to show that gradations of some kind are possible, and this we certainly can do. I have been surprised to find making allowance for the instincts of animals having been but little observed except in Europe and North America and for no instinct being known amongst extinct species how very generally gradations leading to the most complex instincts can be discovered. Changes of instinct may sometimes be facilitated by the same species having different instincts at different periods of life or at different seasons of the year or when placed under different circumstances &c in which case either the one or the other instinct might be preserved by natural selection. And such instances of diversity of instinct in the same species can be shown to occur in nature.

Again as in the case of corporeal structure and conformably to my theory the instinct of each species is good for itself but has never as far as we can judge been produced for the exclusive good of others. One of the strongest instances of an animal apparently performing an action for the sole good of another with which I am acquainted is that of aphides voluntarily yielding as was first observed by Huber their sweet excretion to ants that they do so voluntarily the following facts show. I removed all the ants from a group of about a dozen aphides on a dock plant, and prevented their attendance during several hours. After this interval I felt sure that the aphides would want to excrete. I watched them for some time through a lens but not one excreted. I then tickled and stroked them with a hair in the same manner as well as I could as the ants do with their antennæ but not one ex-

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As some degree of variation in instincts under a state of nature and the inheritance of such variation are indispensable for the action of natural selection as many instances as possible ought to be given but want of space prevents me. I can only assert that instincts certainly do vary—for instance the migratory instinct both in extent and direction and in its total loss. So it is with the nests of birds, which vary partly in dependence on the situations chosen and on the nature and temperature of the country inhabited but often from causes wholly unknown to us. Audubon has given several remarkable cases of differences in the nests of the same species in the northern and southern United States. Why it has been asked if instinct be variable has it not granted to the bee the ability to use some other material when wax was deficient? But what other natural material could bees use? They will work as I have seen with wax harder I with vermilion or softened with sand. Andrew Knight observed that his bees instead of laboriously collecting propolis, used a cement of wax and turpentine with which he had covered and coated trees. It has lately been

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first laid would have to be left for some time unincubated. There would be eggs and young birds of different ages in the same nest. If this were the case the process of laying and hatching might be inconsequently more especially as she migrates at a very early period and the first hatched young would probably have to be fed by the male alone. But the American cuckoo is in this predicament. She makes her own nest, and has eggs and young successively hatched all the same time. It has been both asserted and denied that the American cuckoo occasionally lays her eggs in bird nests built by her. I have heard from Dr. McNeill of Iowa, that he once found Illinois cuckoo together with a young one in the nest of a

(*Garrulus cristatus*) and a both were careful of the red thread could be mistaken in their identification. I could also give several instances of another bird which has been known occasionally to lay its eggs in other bird nests. Nevertheless, I propose that the ancient proverb of our European cuckoo had the habits of the American cuckoo and that she occasionally laid an egg in another bird nest. If the old bird profited by this occasional habit through being enabled to migrate early through any other cause or if the young were reared in the grove by adoption, being taken of the mistaken instinct of another species than when reared by their own mother, encumbered as he could hardly fail to be a hatching egg and young of different ages at the same time than the old bird or

in a single species, is useless, for we have the facts to guide us. Until recently the instincts of the European and of the American parasitic cuckoo alone were known. Now owing to Mr. Ramsay's observations, we have learnt something about three Australian species, which lay the eggs in other birds' nests. The chief points to be referred to are three: first, that the common cuckoo, with rare exceptions, lays only one egg in a nest, so that the large and ravenous young bird receives ample food. Secondly, that the eggs are remarkably small, not exceeding those of the skylark, — a bird about one-fourth as large as the cuckoo. Thirdly, that the small size of the egg is a real case of adaptation. The American cuckoo laying full-sized eggs. Thirdly, that the young cuckoo soon after birth, has the instinct of the treachery and a properly supplied back for rejecting its foster brothers, which it can perish from cold and hunger. This has been boldly called a beneficial arrangement, in order that the

Turning now to the Australian species, though these birds generally lay only one egg in a nest, it is not rare to find two or even three eggs in the same nest. In the bronze cuckoo the eggs vary greatly in size from eight to ten times in length. Now if it had been of an advantage that the species to have laid eggs smaller than those now laid so as to have deceived certain foster parents, or as more probably to have been hatched within a short period (as it is asserted that there is a relation between the size of eggs and the period of their incubation) then there is no difficulty in believing that the species might have been formed which would have laid small and small eggs for these would have been more safely hatched and reared. Mr. Ramsay remarks that two of the Australian cuckoos, when they lay their eggs in an open nest, manifest a decided preference for nests containing eggs similar in colour to their own. The European species apparently manifests some tendency toward this instinct, but it rarely departs from it, as is shown by the laying of dull and pale-colored eggs in the nest of the Hedge-warbler with bright greenish blue eggs. Had our cuckoo invariably displayed this also instinct, it would assuredly have been added to those which it is assumed must all have been ac-

instinctance the occasional and aberrant habit of their mother and their turn would be apt to lay their eggs in the birds' nests, and thus be more successful in rearing them. By a continued process of this nature I believe that the strange instinct of the cuckoo has been generated. It has, also, recently been ascertained on sufficient evidence by Ad. H. M. U. that the cuckoo occasionally lays its eggs in the bare ground with them, and feeds her young. This rare but is probably a case of retrogression to the long lost, aboriginal instinct of identification.

It has been objected that I have noticed other related instincts and adaptations of structure the cuckoo, which are spoken of as necessarily co-ordinated. But in all cases, speculation on an instinct known to us only

by young birds that have never seen a pigeon tumble. We may believe that some one pigeon showed a slight tendency to this strange habit, and that the long-continued selection of the best individuals in successive generations made tumblers what they now are. And near Glasgow there are house tumblers, as I hear from Mr Brent, which cannot fly eighteen inches high without going head over heels. It may be doubted whether any one would have thought of training a dog to point, had not some one dog naturally shown a tendency in this line, and this is known occasionally to happen, as I once saw, in a pure terrier, the act of pointing is probably as many have thought only the exaggerated pause of an animal preparing to spring on its prey. When the first tendency to point was once displayed, methodical selection and the inherited effects of compulsory training in each successive generation would soon complete the work, and unconscious selection is still in progress, as each man tries to procure, without intending to improve the breed, dogs which stand and hunt best. On the other hand, habit alone in some cases has sufficed; hardly any animal is more difficult to tame than the young of the wild rabbit, scarcely any animal is tamer than the young of the tame rabbit, but I can hardly suppose that domestic rabbits have often been selected for tameness alone, so that we must attribute at least the greater part of the inherited change from extreme wildness to extreme tameness to habit and long continued close confinement.

Natural instincts are lost under domestication, a remarkable instance of this is seen in those breeds of fowls which very rarely or never become broody, that is, never wish to sit on their eggs. Familiarity alone prevents our seeing how largely and how permanently the minds of our domestic animals have been modified. It is scarcely possible to doubt that the love of man has become instinctive in the dog. All wolves, foxes, jackals, and peccaries of the cat genus, when kept tame, are most eager to attack poultry, sheep, and pigs, and this tendency has been found incurable in dogs which have been brought home as puppies from countries such as Tierra del Fuego and Australia, where the savages do not keep these domestic animals. How rarely on the other hand do our civilised dogs, even when quite young, require to be taught not to attack poultry, sheep, and pigs? No doubt they occasionally do make an attack, and are then

On the other hand, young chickens have lost wholly by habit that fear of the dog and cat which no doubt was originally instinctive with them. For I am informed by Captain Hutton that the young chickens of the parent-stock, the *Gallus bankiva*, when reared in India under a hen, are at first excessively wild. So it is with young pheasants reared in England under a hen. It is not that chickens have lost all fear, but fear only of dogs and cats; for if the hen gives the danger-chuckle, they will run (more especially young turkeys) from under her and conceal themselves in the surrounding grass or thickets, and this is evidently done for the instinctive purpose of allowing, as we see in wild ground birds, their mother to fly away. But this instinct retained by our chickens has become useless under domestication, for the mother hen has almost lost by disuse the power of flight.

Hence we may conclude that under domestication instincts have been acquired and natural instincts have been lost partly by habit and partly by man selecting and accumulating during successive generations peculiar mental habits and actions, which at first appeared from what we must in our ignorance call an accident. In some cases compulsory habit alone has sufficed to produce inherited mental changes; in other cases compulsory habit has done nothing, and all has been the result of selection pursued both methodically and unconsciously, but in most cases habit and selection have probably concurred.

Special Instincts

We shall perhaps best understand how instincts in a state of nature have become modified by selection by considering a few cases.

1. In the instinct of the cuckoo, the female lays her eggs not daily, but at intervals of two or three days, so that if she were to make her own nest and sit on her own eggs, those

instincts of the cuckoo.—It is supposed by some naturalists that the more immediate cause of the instinct of the cuckoo is that she lays her eggs not daily, but at intervals of two or three days, so that if she were to make her own nest and sit on her own eggs, those

quired together. The eggs of the Australian bronze cuckoo vary according to Mr. Ramsay to an extraordinary degree in colour so that in this respect as well as in size natural selection might have secured and fixed any advantageous variation.

In the case of the European cuckoo the offspring of the foster parents are commonly ejected from the nest within three days after the cuckoo is hatched, and as the latter at this age is in a most helpless condition Mr. Gould was formerly inclined to believe that the act of ejection was performed by the foster parents themselves. But he has now received a trustworthy account of a young cuckoo which was actually seen whilst still blind and not able even to hold up its own head in the act of ejecting its foster brothers. One of these was replaced in the nest by the adult male.

I was years ago was it were of great importance for the young cuckoo as is probably the case to receive as much food as possible soon after birth. I can see no special difficulty.

For the work of ejection for those young cuckoos which had such habits and structure best developed would be the most securely reared. The first step towards the acquisition of the proper instinct might have been more unintentional restlessness on the part of the young bird when somewhat advanced in age and strength, the habit having been afterwards improved and transmitted to an earlier age. I can see no more difficulty in this than in the unhatched young of other birds acquiring the instinct to break through their own shells—or than in young snakes acquiring in their upper jaws as Owen has remarked a transitory sharp tooth for cutting through the tough egg shell. For if each part is liable to individual variations at all ages, and the variations tend to be inherited at a corresponding or earlier age—propositions which cannot be disputed—then the instincts and structure of the young could be slowly modified as surely as those of the adult, and both cases must stand or fall together with the whole theory of natural selection.

Some species of *Molothrus*, a widely distinct genus of American birds allied to our starlings, have parasitic habits like those of the cuckoo, and the species present an interesting gradation

in the perfection of their instincts. The sexes of *Molothrus badius* are stated by an excellent observer Mr. Hudson sometimes to live promiscuously together in flocks, and sometimes to pair. They either build a nest of their own or seize on one belonging to some other bird occasionally the nest

if eggs enough They sit on their own eggs and rear their own young but Mr. Hudson says it is probable that they are occasionally parasitic for he has seen the young of this species following old birds of a distinct kind and clamouring to be fed by them. They

are still far from perfect. This bird as far as it is known invariably lays its eggs in the nests of strangers but it is remarkable that several together sometime commence to build an irregular untidy nest of their own placed in singularly ill adapted situations as on the leaves of a large thistle. They never however as far as Mr. Hudson has ascertained complete a nest for themselves. They often lay so many eggs—from fifteen to twenty—in the same foster nest, that few or none can possibly be hatched. They have moreover the extraordinary habit of pecking holes in the eggs whether of their own species or of their foster parents which they find in the appropriated nests. They drop also many eggs on the bare ground which are thus wasted. A third species the *M. pecorus* of North America has acquired instincts as perfect as those of the cuckoo for it never lays more than one egg in a foster nest so that the young bird is securely reared. Mr. Hudson is a strong disbeliever in evolution but he appears to have been so much struck by the imperfect instincts of the *Molothrus bonariensis* that he quotes my words and asks, Must we consider these habits not as especially endowed or created instincts but as small consequences of one general law namely transition?

Various birds, as has already been

as usual and lay first a few eggs in one nest and then in another and these are hatched by the males. This instinct may prob-

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scoten nr tree twenty five yards distant which they ascended together probably in search of aphides or cocei According to Huber who had ample opportunities for observation the slaves in Switzerland habitually work with their masters in making the nest and they alone open and close the doors in the morning and evening and as Huber expressly states their principal office is to search for aphides This difference in the usual habits of the masters and slaves in the two countries probably depends merely on the slaves being captured in greater numbers in Switzerland than in England

One day I fortunately witnessed a migration of *F. sanguinea* from one nest to another and behold slaves in the case of *F. rufescens* Another day my attention was struck by about a score of the slave makers haunting the same spot and evidently not in search of food they approached and were vigorously repulsed by an independent community of the slave species (*F. fusca*) sometimes as many as three of these ants clinging to the legs of the slave making *F. sanguinea* The latter ruthlessly killed their small opponents and carried their dead bodies as food to their nest twenty nine yards distant but they were prevented from getting any pupæ to rear as slaves I then dug up a small parcel of the pupæ of *F. fusca* from another nest and put them down on a bare spot near the place of combat they were eagerly seized and carried off by the tyrants who perhaps fancied that after all they had been victorious in their late combat

At the same time I laid on the same place a small parcel of the pupæ of moulder peccies *F. flava* with a few of these little yellow ants still clinging to the fragments of their nest This peccies is sometimes though rarely made into slaves as has been described by Mr Smith Although so small a species it is very courageous and I have seen it ferociously attack other ants In one instance I found to my surprise an independent community of *F. flava* under a stone beneath a nest of the slave making *F. sanguinea* and when I had accidentally disturbed both nests the little ant attacked their big neighbours with surprising courage Now I was curious to ascertain

whether *F. sanguinea* could distinguish the pupæ of *F. fusca* which they habitually make into slaves from those of the little and furious *F. flava* which they rarely capture and it was evident that they did at once distinguish them for we have seen that they eagerly and instantly seized the pupæ of *F. fusca* whereas they were much terrified when they came across the pupæ or even the earth from the nest of *F. flava* and quickly ran away but in about a quarter of an hour shortly after all the little yellow ants had crawled away they took heart and carried off the pupæ

One evening I visited another community of *F. sanguinea* and found it

as not a migration) and numerous pupæ I traced a long file of ants burthened with booty for about forty yards back to a very thick clump of heath whence I saw the last individual of *F. sanguinea* emerge carrying a pupa but I was not able to find the desolated nest in the thick heath The nest however must have been close at hand for two or three individuals of *F. fusca* were rushing and one was up in its an image

Such are the facts though they did not need confirmation by me in regard to the wonderful instinct of making slaves Let it be observed what a contrast the instinctive habits of *F. sanguinea* present with those of the continental *F. rufescens* The latter does not build its own nest does not determine its own migrations does not collect food for itself or its young and cannot even feed itself it is absolutely dependent on its numerous slaves *Formica ruginosa* on the other hand possesses much for slave and in the early part of the summer extremely few the masters determine when and where a new nest shall be formed and when they migrate the masters carry the slaves Both in Switzerland and England the slaves seem to have the exclusive care of the larvæ and the masters alone on slave making expeditions In Switzerland the slaves and masters work together making and bringing materials for the nest both but chiefly the larvae and milk as it may be called their aphides and thus both collect food for the community In England the masters alone usually have the right to collect building materials and food for themselves,

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is more important labour by this manner of building for the flat walls between the adjoining cells are not double but are of the same thickness as the outer spherical portions and yet each flat portion forms a part of two cells.

Reflecting on this case it occurred to me that if the *Melipona* had made its spheres at some given distance from each other and had made them of equal sizes and had arranged them symmetrically in a double layer the resulting structure would have been as perfect as the comb of the hive bee. Accordingly I wrote to Professor Miller of Cambridge and this geometer has kindly read over the following statement drawn up from his information and tells me that it is strictly correct—

If a number of equal

spheres of radius $\times 1.41421$ (or at some lesser distance) from the centres of the six surrounding spheres in the same layer and at the same distance from the centres of the adjoining spheres in the other and parallel layer then if planes of intersection between the several spheres in both layers be formed there will result a double layer of hexagonal prisms united together by pyramidal bases formed of three rhombs and the rhombs and the sides of the hexagonal prisms will have every angle identically the same with the best measurements which have been made of the cells of the hive bee. But I hear from Prof Wyman who has made numerous careful measurements that the accuracy of the workmanship of the bee has been greatly exaggerated so much so that whatever the typical form of the cell may be it is rarely if ever realised.

Hence we may safely conclude that, if we could slightly modify the instincts already possessed by the *Melipona* and in themselves not very wonderful this bee would make a structure as wonderfully perfect as that of the hive bee. We must suppose that *Melipona* to have the power of forming her cells truly spherical and of equal sizes and this would not be very surprising seeing that she already does so to a certain extent and seeing what perfectly cylindrical burrows many insects make in wood apparently by turning round on a fixed point. We must suppose the *Melipona* to arrange her cells in level layers, as she already does her cylindrical cells and we must further suppose and this is the greatest difficulty that she can somehow judge accurately

at what distance to stand from her fellow labourers when several are making their spheres but she is already so far enabled to judge of distance that she always describes her spheres so as to intersect to a certain extent and then she unites the points of intersection by perfectly flat surfaces. By such modifications of instincts which in themselves are not very wonderful—hardly more wonderful than those which guide a bird to make its nest,—I believe that the hive bee has acquired through natural selection her remarkable architectural powers.

But this theory can be tested by experiment. Following the example of Mr Legetmeier I separated two combs and put between them a long thick rectangular strip of wax the bees instantly began to excavate minute circular pits in it.

Meaning to the eye perfectly true or parts of a sphere and of about the diameter of a cell. It was most interesting to observe that whenever several bees had begun to excavate these basins near together they had begun their work at such a distance from each other that by the time the basins had acquired the above-stated width (i.e. about the width of an ordinary cell) and were in depth about one sixth of the diameter of the sphere of which they formed a part the rims of the basins intersected or broke into each other. As soon as this occurred the bees ceased to excavate and began to build up flat walls of wax on the lines of intersection between the basins so that each hexagonal prism was built upon the scalloped edge of a smooth basin instead of on the straight edges of a three-sided pyramid as in the case of ordinary cells.

I then put into the hive instead of a thick rectangular piece of wax a thin and narrow knife edged ridge coloured with vermilion. The bees instantly began on both sides to excavate little basins near to each other in the same way as before but the ridge of wax was so thin that the bottom of the basins if they had been excavated to the same depth as in the former experiment would have broken into each other from the opposite sides. The bees, however did not suffer this to happen and they stopped their excavations in due time so that the basins, as soon as they had been a little deepened came to have flat bases and these flat bases, formed by thin little plates of the vermilion wax if it ungnaed were situ

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an country and let us further suppose that the community lived through the winter and consequently required a store of honey there can in this case be no doubt that it would be an advantage to our imaginary humble-bee if a slight modification in her instincts led her to make her waxen cells near to the so as to intersect a little for a wall in common even to the adjoining cells would save some little labour and wax. Hence they would continually be more and more advantageous to our humble-bees, if they were to make their cells more and more regular nearer together and aggregated into mass, like the cells of the *Melipona* in this case a large part of the bounding surface of each cell would serve to bound the adjoining cells, and in each labour and wax would be saved. Again, from the same cause, they could be advantageous to the *Melipona*, if they were to make their cells close together and more regular in every way than they present for them, as we have seen, the spherical surfaces

natural selection could not lead to the combination of the honey-bee, as far as we can see, is absolutely perfect in economising labour and wax.

Thus, as I believe, the most wonderful of all known instincts, that of the honey-bee can be explained by natural selection having taken advantage of numerous successful slight modifications of simple instincts. Natural selection has improved by slow degrees, in the present perfect condition of the bees to sweep equal spheres at given distance from each other in the double layer and to build proper cells and to eat the wax alone, the planes of intersection of the bees, of course no more knowing, that they swept their places at one particular distance from each other than the honey-bee what are the several angles of the hexagonal prisms and of the basal rhombic plates the motive power of the process of natural selection having been the construction of cells of the strength and of the proper size and shape for the larvae thus being fitted to the greatest possible economy of labour and wax that is to say the arm which they made the best cells with the least labour and least waste of honey in the secretion of wax, having succeeded best, and having transmitted their newly-acquired economical instincts to new swarms, which in their turn will have had the best chance of succeeding in the struggle for existence.

Objections to the Theory of Natural Selection as applied to Instincts in Sterile Insects

It the strenuous and simultaneous and as a modification in the one with the other would correspond in change in the other would have been fatal. The force of this objection rests entirely on the assumption that the changes in the instincts and structure are abrupt. To take as an illustration the case of the larger titmouse (*Parus major*) alluded to in the previous chapter this bird often holds the seeds of the yew between its feet on a branch, and hammers with its beak till the seeds are the kernel. Now what special difficulty would there be in natural selection preserving all the slight individual variations in the shape of the beak, which were better and better adapted to break open the seeds, until a beak was formed, as well constructed for this purpose as that of the nuthatch, at the same time that habit, or compulsion, spontaneous variations of taste led the bird to become more and more of a seed-eater. In this case the beak is supposed to be slowly modified by natural selection.

with the beak, from an other unknown cause and it is not improbable that such a race would lead the bird to climb more and more until it acquired the remarkable climbing instinct and power of the titmouse. In this case a gradual change of structure is supposed to lead to changed instincts. habits. To take another case if we instincts are more remarkable than that which I add the swift of the East Indian Islands that make its nest wholly of spissated saliva. Some birds build their nests of mud beheaded to be in contact with saliva and of the swifts of North America makes its nest (as I have seen) of ticks agglutinated with saliva, and even with flakes of this substance. Is it then not improbable that the natural selection of individual swifts, which secreted more and more saliva, should at last produce a species with instincts leading it to neglect their materials, and to make its nest chiefly of spissated saliva. And so in other cases. It must, however, be admitted that in many instances we cannot conjecture whether it was instinct or structure which first varied.

the basal rhomboidal plates are thicker nearly in the proportion of three to two having a mean thickness from twenty one measurements of $\frac{1}{16}$ of an inch By the above singular manner of building strength is continually given to the comb with the utmost ultimate economy of wax

It seems at first to add to the difficulty of understanding how the cells are made that a multitude of bees all work on one bee

all going to the same score of work even at the commencement of the first cell I was able practically to show this fact by covering the edges of the hexagonal walls of a single cell or the extreme margin of the circumferential rim of a growing comb with an extreme

crust—by atoms of the coloured wax having been taken from the spot on which it had been placed and worked into the growing edges of the cells all round The work of construction seems to be a sort of balance struck between many bees all instinctively standing at the same relative distance from each other all trying to sweep equal spheres and then building up or leaving ungnawed the planes of intersection between these spheres It was really curious to note in cases of difficulty as when two pieces of comb met

the space which they had at first rejected

When bees have a place on which they can stand in their proper positions for working—for instance on a slip of wood placed directly under the middle of a comb growing downwards so that the comb has to be built over one face of the slip—in this case the bees can lay the foundations of one wall of a new hexagon in its strictly proper place projecting beyond the other completed cells It suffices that the bees should be enabled to stand at their proper relative distances from each other and from the walls of the last completed cell

they then begin to lay the foundations of a new cell till a large part both of that cell and of the adjoining cells has been built It is especially in bees of laying down under certain circumstances a rough wall in its proper place

between two just-commenced cells, is important as it bears on a fact which seems at first subversive of the foregoing theory namely that the cells on the extreme margin of wasp-combs are sometimes strictly hexagonal but I have not space here to enter on this subject Nor does there seem to me any great difficulty in a single insect (as in the case of a queen wasp) making hexagonal cells if she were to work alternately on the inside and outside of two or three cells commenced at the same time always standing at the proper relative distance from the parts of the cells just begun sweeping spheres or cylinders, and building up intermediate planes

As natural selection acts only by the accumulation of slight modifications of structure or instinct each profitable to the individual under its conditions of life it may reasonably be asked how a long and graduated succession of modified architectural instincts all tending towards the present perfect plan of construction could have profited the progenitors of the hive bee? I think the answer is not difficult cells constructed like those of the bee or the wasp gain in strength and save much in labour and space and in the materials of which they are constructed With respect to the formation of wax it is known that bees are often hard pressed to get sufficient nectar and I am informed by Mr Tegetmeier that it has been experimentally proved that from twelve to fifteen pounds of dry sugar are consumed by a hive of bees for the secretion of a pound of wax so that a prodigious quantity of fluid nectar must be collected and consumed by the bees in a hive for the secretion of the wax necessary for the construction of their combs Moreover many bees have to remain idle for many days during the process of secretion A large store of honey is indispensable to support a large stock of bees during the winter and the security of the hive is known mainly to depend on a large number of bees being supported Hence the saving of wax by largely saving honey and the time consumed in collecting the honey must be an important element of success to any family of bees Of course the success of the species may be dependent on the number of its enemies

and whether a few all the four humble bees could exist in large numbers in

No doubt many instincts of very difficult explanation could be opposed to the theory of natural selection—cases in which we cannot see how an instinct could have originated cases in which no intermediate gradations are known to exist cases of instincts of such trifling importance that they could hardly have been acted on by natural selection cases of instincts almost identically the same in animals so remote in the scale of nature that we cannot account for their similarity by inheritance from a common progenitor and consequently must believe that they were independently acquired through natural selection I will not here enter on these several cases, but

I. —

the neuters or sterile females in insect-communities for these neuters often differ widely in instinct and in structure from both the

great length but I will here take only a single case that of working or sterile ants How the workers have been rendered sterile is a difficulty but not much greater than that of any other striking modification of structure for it can be shown that some insects and other articulate animals in a state of nature occasionally become sterile and if such insects had been social and it had been profitable to the community that a number should have been annually born capable of work but incapable of procreation I can see no especial difficulty in this having been effected through natural selection But I must pass over this preliminary difficulty The great difficulty lies in the working ants differing widely from both the males and the fertile females in structure as in the shape of the thorax and in being destitute of wings and sometimes of eyes and in instinct As far as instinct alone is concerned the wonderful difference in this respect between the workers and the perfect females would have been better exemplified by the hive bee If a working ant or other neuter insect had been an ordinary animal I should have unhesitatingly assumed that all its characters had been slowly acquired through natural selection namely by individuals having been born with slight profitable modifications which were inherited by the offspring and that these again varied and again were selected and so onwards But with the working ant we have an

insect differing greatly from its parents, yet absolutely sterile so that it could never have transmitted successively acquired modifications of structure or instinct to its progeny It may well be asked how is it possible to reconcile this case with the theory of natural selection?

First let it be remembered that we have innumerable instances both in our domestic productions and in those in a state of nature of all sorts of differences of inherited structure which are correlated with certain ages, and with either sex We have differences correlated not only with one sex but with that short period when the reproductive system is active as in the nuptial plumage of many birds, and in the hooked jaws of the male salmon We have even slight differences in the horns of different breeds of cattle in relation to an artificially imperfect state of the male sex for oxen of certain breeds have longer horns than the oxen of other breeds, relatively to the length of the horns in both the bulls and cows of these same breeds. Hence I can see no great difficulty in any character becoming correlated with the sterile condition of certain members of insect communities the difficulty lies in understanding how such correlated modifications of structure could have been slowly accumulated by natural selection

This difficulty though appearing insuperable is lessened or as I believe disappears, when it is remembered that selection may be applied to the family as well as to the individual and may thus gain the desired end Breeders of cattle wish the flesh and fat to be

has succeeded Such faith may be placed in the power of selection that a breed of cattle always yielding oxen with extraordinarily long horns could it is probable, be formed by carefully watching which individual bulls and cow when matched produced oxen with the longest horns and yet no ox would ever have propagated its kind Here is a better and real illustration according to M Verlot, some varieties of the double annual *Stoea* from having been long and carefully selected to the right degree always produce a large proportion of seedlings bearing double and quite sterile flowers but they likewise yield some single and fertile plants. These latter by which alone the variety can be propagated may be compared with the fertile male and female

This theory is also strengthened by some facts which regard the instincts as by

IN SAME MANNER AS —

stand the principle of inheritance how it is that the thrush of tropical South America builds its nest with mud in the same peculiar manner as does our British thrush. It is that the hornbills of Africa and India have the same extraordinary instinct of plastering up and imprisoning the females in a hole in a tree which is a small hole filled with plaster through which the males feed them and through which

when hatched how it is that the male wrens (Troglodyte) of North America build cock-nests, to roost in, like the male of our little wrens,—but wholly unlike that of any other known bird. Finally it may not be a logical deduction but to my imagination it is far more satisfactory to look at such instincts as the yellow cuckoo rejecting its foster brothers,—ants making piles,—the larvae of the monarch feeding within the leaves of caterpillars,—and as specially in the welded or related instincts but as small consequences of one general law leads to the advancement of all organisms,—namely multiply arrayed the strongest and the weakest.

of difference in these workers by my giving not the actual measurements but a strictly accurate illustration the difference was the same as if we were to see a set of workmen building a house of whom many were five feet four inches high and many sixteen feet high but we must in addition suppose that the larger workmen had heads four instead of three times as big as those of the smaller men and jaws nearly five times as big. The jaws moreover of the worker

is that though the workers can be grouped into castes of different size yet they graduate insensibly into each other as does the widely different structure of their jaws. I speak confidently on this latter point, as Sir J. Lubbock made drawings for me with the camera lucida of the jaws which I dissected from the workers of the several sizes. Mr. Bates in his interesting *Naturalist on the Imaons* has described analogous cases.

With these facts before me I believe that natural selection by acting on the fertile ants or parents could form a species which should regularly produce neuters all of large size with one form of jaw or all of small size with widely different jaws or lastly and this is the greatest difficulty one set of workers of one size and structure and simultaneously another set of workers of a different size and structure—a graduated series having first been formed as in the case of the driver ant and then the extreme forms having been produced by a greater rivalry of all none produced.

As given by Mr. Wallace of the equally complex case of certain Malayan butterflies regularly appearing under two or even three distinct female forms and by Fritz Müller of certain Brazilian crustaceans likewise appearing under two widely distinct male forms. But this subject need not here be discussed.

I have now explained how, as I believe the wonderful fact of two distinctly defined castes of sterile workers existing in the same nest, both widely different from each other and from their parents, has originated. We can see how useful their production may have been to a social community of ants, on the same principle that the division of labour is useful to civilised man. Ants, however, work by inherited instincts and by inherited organs or

tools whilst man works by acquired knowledge and manufactured instruments. But I must confess that, with all my faith in natural selection I should never have anticipated that this principle could have been efficient to so high a degree had not the case of these neuter insects led me to this conclusion. I have, therefore, discussed this case at some little but wholly insufficient length in order to show the power of natural selection and likewise because this is by far the most serious peculiar difficulty which my theory has encountered. The case, also, is very interesting as it proves that with animals, as with plants, any amount of modification may be effected by the accumulation of numerous, slight, spontaneous variations, which are in any way profitable without exercise or habit having been brought into play. For peculiar habits confined to the workers or sterile females however long they might be followed could not possibly affect the males and fertile females which alone leave descendants. I am surprised that no one has hitherto advanced this demonstrative case of neuter insects against the well known doctrine of inherited habit, as advanced by Lamarck.

Summary

I have endeavoured in this chapter briefly to show that the mental qualities of our domestic animals vary and that the variations are inherited. Still more briefly I have attempted to show that instincts vary slightly in a state of nature. No one will dispute that instincts are of the highest importance to each animal. Therefore there is no real difficulty under changing conditions of life in natural selection accumulating to any extent slight modifications of instinct which are in any way useful. In many cases habit or use and disuse have probably come into play. I do not pretend that the facts given in this chapter strengthen in any great degree my theory but none of the cases of difficulty to the best of my judgment, annihilate it. On the other hand the fact that instincts are not always absolutely perfect and are liable to mistakes—that no instinct can be shown to have been produced for the good of other animals, though animals take advantage of the instincts of others—that the canon in natural history of *Natura non facit alium* is applicable to instincts as well as to corporeal structure and is plainly explicable on the foregoing view, but is otherwise inexplicable—all tend to corroborate the theory of natural selection.

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ner arrived at diametrically opposite conclusions in regard to some of the very same forms. It is also most instructive to compare—but I have not space here to enter on details—the evidence advanced by our best botanists on the question whether the certain doubtful forms should be ranked as species varieties, with the evidence from fertility added by different hybridisers, by the same observer from experiments made during different years. It can thus be shown that the sterility nor fertility affords any certain distinction between species and varieties. The evidence from this source graduates very and is difficult in the same degree as is the evidence derived from their constitutional and structural differences.

In regard to the sterility of hybrids in successive generations though Garton was enabled to rear some hybrids, carefully guarding them from crosses with either parent, for six or seven, and in no case of fertilisations, yet he asserts positively that their fertility never increases, but generally decreases greatly and suddenly. With respect to this decrease it may first be noticed that when any deviation in structure or constitution is common to both parents, thus often transmitted in an unmodified degree to the offspring, and both sexual elements in hybrid plants are already affected in some degree. But I believe that their fertility has been diminished in nearly all these cases by an independent cause, namely by too close interbreeding. I have made so many experiments and collected so many facts, showing the one hand that an occasional cross with distinct individual or variety increases the vigour and fertility of the offspring, and the other hand that every close interbreeding lessens their vigour and fertility that I cannot doubt the correctness of this conclusion. If hybrids are seldom raised by experimentalists in great numbers and as the parent species, or other allied hybrids, generally grow in the same garden, the visits of insects must be carefully prevented during the flowering season between hybrids, if left to themselves, and generally be fertilised during each generation by pollen from the same flower and thus would probably be injurious to their fertility already lessened by their hybrid origin. I am strengthened in this conclusion by remark-

able statement repeatedly made by Garton namely that if even the less fertile hybrids be artificially fertilised with hybrid pollen of the same kind their fertility notwithstanding the

sterility, pollen is as often taken by chance (as I know from my own experience) from the anthers of another flower as from the anthers of the flower itself which is to be fertilised so that a cross between two flowers, though probably of the same plant, would be thus effected. Moreover when so complicated experiments are in progress, so careful an observer as Garton would have contradicted his hybrids, and thus would have contradicted his generation a cross with pollen from a distinct flower from the same plant or from another plant of the same hybrid nature. And thus, the strange fact of an increase of fertility in the successive generations of artificially fertilised hybrids, in contrast with those spontaneously self-fertilised, may as I believe be accounted for by too close interbreeding, having been added.

Now it is turn to the results arrived at by a third most experienced hybridiser namely the Hon. and R. W. Herbert. He is emphatic in his conclusion that some hybrids are perfectly fertile—as fertile as the pure parent species—as are *Holcus* and Garton that some degree of sterility between distinct species is a universal law of nature. He experimented on some of the very same species as did Garton. The difference in the result may I think, be in part accounted for by Herbert's great horticultural skill, and by his having hot houses at his command. Of his many important statements I will here give only a single one as an example, namely that fertility in a pod of *Crotalaria capensis* fertilised by *C. reticulata* produced a plant, which I never saw to occur in case of its natural fecundation. So that here we have perfect or even more than commonly perfect fertility in the first cross between two distinct species. This case of the *Crotalaria* leads me to refer to a singular fact, namely that individual plants of certain species of *Lobelia*, *Geranium* and *Asarum*, can easily be fertilised by pollen from a distinct species, but not by pollen from the same plant, though this pollen can be proved to be perfectly sound by fertilising other plants or species. In the genus *Impatiens*, in *Corydalis* as shown by Professor

CHAPTER IX

HYBRIDISM

THE view commonly entertained by naturalists is that species when intercrossed have been pecially endowed with sterility in order to prevent their confusion. This view certainly seems at first highly probable for species living together could hardly have been kept distinct had they been capable of freely crossing. The subject is in many ways important for us more especially as the sterility of species when first crossed and that of their hybrid offspring cannot have been acquired as I shall show by the preservation of successive profitable degrees of sterility. It is an incidental result of differences in the reproductive systems of the parent species.

In treating this subject two classes of facts to a large extent fundamentally different have generally been confounded namely the sterility of species when first crossed and the sterility of the hybrids produced from them.

Pure species have of course their organs of reproduction in a perfect condition yet when intercrossed they produce either few or no offspring. Hybrids on the other hand have their reproductive organs functionally impotent as may be clearly seen in the state of the male element in both plants and animals though the formative organs themselves are perfect in structure as far as the microscope reveals. In the first case the two sexual elements which go to form the embryo are perfect in the second case they are either not at all developed or are imperfectly developed. This distinction is important, when the cause of the sterility which is common to the two cases has to be considered. The distinction probably has been slurred over owing to the sterility in both cases being looked on as a special endowment beyond the province of our reasoning powers.

The fertility of varieties that is of the forms known or believed to be descended from common parents, when crossed and likewise the fertility of their mongrel offspring is with reference to my theory of equal importance with the sterility of species for it seems to make a broad and clear distinction between varieties and species.

Degrees of Sterility—First for the sterility of species when crossed and of their hybrid offspring. It is impossible to study the several

memoirs and works of those two conscientious and admirable observers, Kolreuter and Gärtner who almost devoted their lives to this

he cuts the knot for in ten cases in which he found two forms considered by most authors as distinct species quite fertile together he unhesitatingly ranks them as varieties. Gärtner also makes the rule equally universal and he disputes the entire fertility of Kolreuter's ten cases. But in these and in many other cases Gärtner is obliged carefully to count the seeds in order to show that there is any degree of sterility. He always compares the maximum number of seed produced by two species when first crossed and the maximum produced by their hybrid offspring with the average number produced by both pure parent species in a state of nature. But causes of serious error here intervene a plant to be hybridised must be castrated and what is often more important must be secluded in order to prevent pollen being brought to it by insects from other plants. Nearly all the plants experimented on by Gärtner were potted and were kept in a chamber in his house. That these processes are often injurious to the fertility of a plant cannot be doubted for Gärtner gives in his table about a score of cases of plants which he castrated and artificially fertilised with their own pollen and (excluding all cases such as the Leguminosae in which there is an acknowledged difficulty in the manipulation) half of the twenty plants had their fertility in some degree impaired. Moreover as Gärtner repeatedly crossed some form such as the common red and blue pimpernels (*Diagallis arvensis* and *c. leia*) which the best botanists rank as varieties as I found them absolutely sterile we may doubt whether many species are really so sterile when intercrossed as he believed.

It is certain on the one hand that the sterility of various species when crossed is so different in degree and graduates away so insensibly and on the other hand that the fertility of pure species is so easily affected by various circumstances that for all practical

mons in regard to some of the very same forms. It is also most instructive to compare—but I have not space here to do so—the results obtained by our best botanists on the question whether certain hybrids should be ranked as species or varieties, with the results from fertility added by different hybridizers, by the same observer from experiments made during different years. It can then be seen that the fertility of the hybrids affords any certain distinction between species and varieties. The evidence from this source graduates with and is doubtless the same degree as is the evidence derived from other constitutional and structural differences.

I regard the sterility of hybrids in succession generally as though Garton was not allowed to rear some hybrids, carefully guarding them from crosses with the pure parent, for instance, and in case of the geraniums, which asserts positively that the fertility increases, but generally decreases greatly and suddenly. With respect to this decrease it may first be noticed that while any variation in structure constitution is common to both parents, this often transmitted and accumulated degree of difference and both sexual elements hybrid plants are already affected in some degree. But I believe that the fertility has been diminished in nearly all these cases by an independent cause, namely, by too close interbreeding. I have made so many experiments and collected so many facts, showing the fact that an occasional cross with distinct individuals and increases the vigor and fertility of the offspring, and that the habit that crosses interbreeding lessens the vigor and fertility, that I cannot doubt the correctness of this conclusion. Hybrid are seldom raised by experienced mentalists in great numbers and as the parent species or other allied hybrids generally grow in the same garden, the visits of insects must be carefully prevented during the flowering season, hence hybrids, if left to themselves, will generally be fertilized during each generation by pollen from the same flower and this would probably be injurious to their fertility already weakened by their hybrid origin. I am strengthened in this conclusion by remark

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Now let us turn to the results arrived at by the third most experienced hybridiser, namely the H. N. and R. W. Herbert. He states as a principle in his conclusions that some hybrids are perfectly fertile—as fertile as the pure parent species—as are *Andromeda* and *Gartia* to some degree of fertility between distinct species is a universal law of nature. He experimented on some of the very same species as did Garton. The difference in the results may I think, be in part accounted for by Herbert's greater horticultural skill, and by his having had the use of his command of his many important talents. I will illustrate only single ones as an example, namely that very well known a pod of *Crimson pensae* fertilized by *Crimson* produced plant, which I saw to occur in a case of its natural fecundation. So that here we have perfect fertility in more than commonly perfect fertility in the first cross between two distinct species. This case of the *Crimson* leads me to refer to a singular fact, namely that individual plants of certain species of *Lobelia*, *Verbascum* and *Lasiolepis*, can easily be fertilized by pollen from distinct species, but not by pollen from the same plant, though this pollen can be proved to be perfectly sound by fertilizing the plants of species. In the genus *Hippocrepis*, in *Crydalis* as shown by Professor

Hildebrand in various orchids as shown by Mr Scott and Fritz Müller all the individuals are in this peculiar condition. So that with some species certain abnormal individuals and in other species all the individuals can actually be hybridised much more readily than they can be fertilised by pollen from the same individual plant! To give one instance a bulb of *Hippeastrum auricum* produced four flowers three were fertilised by Herbert with their own pollen and the fourth was subsequently fertilised by the pollen of a compound hybrid descended from three distinct species the result was that the ovaries of the three first flowers soon ceased to grow and after a few days perished entirely whereas the pod impregnated by the pollen of the hybrid made vigorous growth and rapid progress to maturity and bore good seed which vegetated freely. Mr Herbert tried similar experiments during many years and always with the same result. These cases serve to show on what slight and mysterious causes the lesser or greater fertility of a species sometimes depends.

The practical experiments of horticulturists though not made with scientific precision deserve some notice. It is notorious in how complicated a manner the species of *Ilex* genus *Fuchsia* *Calceolaria* *Letunia* *Rhodod* and *and* have been crossed yet many of the hybrids seed freely. For instance Herlert asserts that a hybrid from *Calceolaria integrifolia* and *plantaginea* species most widely dissimilar in general habit reproduces itself as perfectly as if it had been a natural species from the mountains of Chili. I have taken some pains to ascertain the degree of fertility of some of the complex crosses of rhododendron and I am assured that many of them are perfectly fertile. Mr C Noble for instance informs me that he raises stocks for grafting from a hybrid between *Rhod. ponticum* and *caucasicum* and that this hybrid seeds as freely as it is possible to imagine. Had hybrids when fairly treated always gone on decreasing in fertility in each successive generation as Gartner believed to be the case the fact would have been notorious to nurserymen. Horticulturists raise large beds of the same hybrid and such alone are fairly treated for by insect agency the several individuals are allowed to cross freely of one another and are not subjected to the influence of insect agency by examining the flowers of the more sterile kinds of hybrid rhododendron

which produce no pollen for he will find on their stigmas plenty of pollen brought from other flowers.

In regard to animals much fewer experiments have been carefully tried than in the case of plants.

It is true that we may infer that animals more widely distinct in the scale of nature can be crossed more easily than in the case of plants but the hybrids themselves are I think more sterile. It should however be borne in mind that owing to few animals breeding freely under confinement few experiments have been fairly tried for instance the canary bird has been crossed with nine distinct species of finches but as not one of these breeds freely in confinement we have no right to expect that the first crosses between them and the canary or that their hybrids should be perfectly fertile.

But I have been raised at the same time from different parents so as to avoid the ill effects of close interbreeding. On the contrary brothers and sisters have usually been crossed in each successive generation in opposition to the constantly repeated admonition of every breeder. And in this case it is not at all surprising that the hybrids should be fertile.

Even authenticated cases of perfectly fertile hybrid animals have been recorded.

For example fertile. M. Quatrefages states that the hybrids from two moths (*Bombix cynthia* and *arrindia*) were proved in Paris to be fertile inter se for eight generations. It has lately been asserted that two such distinct species as the hare and rabbit when they can be got to breed together produce offspring which are highly fertile when crossed with one of the parent species. The hybrids from the common and Chinese geese (*1 cygnus*) species which are so different that they are generally ranked in distinct genera have often been bred in this country with either pure parent and in one angle in the north of England

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males, 1.0; females, 0.5; $p < 0.001$).

It has been already remarked that the degree of fertility both of first crosses and of hybrids, gradate from not perfect fertility to a surprising how many curious ways this gradation can be shown but only

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for instance in *Dianthus* the two opposite cases occur

The fertility both of first crosses and of hybrids is more easily affected by unfavourable condition than is that of pure species. But the fertility of first crosses is likewise innately variable for it is not always the same in degree when the same two species are crossed under the same circumstances it depends in part upon the constitution of the individuals which happen to have been chosen for the experiment. So it is with hybrids for their degree of fertility is often found to differ greatly in the several individuals raised from seed out of the same capsule and exposed to the same conditions

is meant, the species in structure and fertility of first crosses, and of the hybrids

between species ranked by systematists in distinct families and on the other hand by very closely allied species generally uniting with facility. But the correspondence between systematic affinity and the facility of crossing is by no means strict. A multitude of cases could be given of very closely allied species which will not unite or only with extreme difficulty and on the other hand of very distinct species which unite with the utmost facility. In the same family there may be a genus as *Dianthus* in which very many species can most readily be crossed and another genus as *Silene* in which the most persevering efforts have failed to produce between extremely close species a single hybrid. Even within the limits of the same genus we meet with this same difference for instance the many species of *Nicotiana* have been more largely crossed than the species of almost any other genus. But Gartner found that *N. acuminata* which is not a particularly distinct species obstinately failed to fertilise or to be fertilised by no less than eight other species of *Nicotiana*. Many analogous facts could be given.

No one has been able to point out what kind or what amount of difference in any recognisable character is sufficient to prevent two species crossing. It can be shown that plants most widely different in habit and general ap-

pearance and having strongly marked differences in every part of the flower even in the pollen in the fruit and in the cotyledons can be crossed. And

tes, can often be crossed with ease

By a reciprocal cross between two species I mean the case for instance of a female ass being first crossed by a stallion and then a mare by a male ass these two species may then be said to have been reciprocally crossed. There is often the widest possible difference in the facility of making reciprocal crosses. Such cases are highly important for they prove that the capacity in any two species to cross is often completely independent of their systematic affinity that is of any difference in their structure or constitution excepting in their reproductive systems. The fertility of the result in reciprocal crosses between the same two species was long ago observed by Haller. To give an instance *Malva sylvestris* can easily be fertilised by the pollen of *M. longiflora* and the hybrids thus produced are sufficiently fertile but Kolreuter tried more than two hundred times during eight following years to fertilise reciprocally *M. longiflora* with the pollen of *M. sylvestris* and utterly failed. Several other equally striking cases could be given. Thuret has observed the same fact with certain sea weeds or *Fucus*. Gartner moreover found that this difference of facility in making reciprocal crosses is extremely common in a lesser degree. Haller has observed it even between closely related forms (as *Malva annua* and *Malva labra*) which many botanists rank only as varieties. It is also a remarkable fact that hybrids raised from reciprocal crosses though of course compounded of the very same two species the one parent having first been used as the father and then as the mother though they rarely differ in essential character yet generally differ in fertility in a small and occasionally in a high degree.

Several other singular rules could be given from Gartner for instance some species have a remarkable power of crossing with other species other species of the same genus have a remarkable power of intercrossing themselves or they differ principally in the sex power so that not at all necessarily got from there are certain hybrids which are said to have

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Consider the several rules we have seen, including initial finality. First, we saw that for all birds, we see that when forms, which must be considered as good and distinct species, are tested the final grades from zero to perfect finality. Initial finality, however, is a condition necessary for finality. The less general the acceptable finality

nature, the two reciprocal crosses between the same two species, the male sex is the limiting factor.

hybrids produced from this cross that the
f ratio of hybrids related to the degree
which they resembled the final appearance
of the parent and that the facility of
making first crosses between any two species
not at all related to the vast mass of
first degree of resemblance to each other.
The latter statement is clearly proved by the
difficulties of rearing the reciprocal crosses
between the same two species, as follows according

th capacity f n pl t to be grafted or
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growth f tl tw plants. W can som times
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different varieties of the apricot and peach on certain varieties of the plum

As Gartner found that there was sometimes an innate difference in different individuals of the same two species in crossing so Sageret believes this to be the case with different individuals of the same two species in being grafted together As in reciprocal crosses the facility of effecting an union is often very far from equal so it sometime

is difficult on the gooseberry

We have seen that the sterility of hybrids which have their reproductive organs in an imperfect condition is a frequent case from

pure species
organs perfect
cases run to a

analogous occurs in grafting for Thoun found that three species of *Robinia* which seeded freely on their own roots and which could be grafted with no great difficulty on a fourth species when thus grafted were rendered barren On the other hand certain species of *Sorbus* when grafted on other species yielded twice as much fruit as when on their own roots We are reminded by this latter fact of the extraordinary cases of *Hippastrum Passiflora* &c which seed much more freely when fertilised with the pollen of a distinct species than when fertilised with pollen from the same plant

We thus see that although there is a clear and great difference between the mere adhesion of grafted stocks and the union of the male and female elements in the act of reproduction yet that there is a rule degree of parallelism in the results of grafting and of crossing distinct species And as we must look at the curious and complex laws governing the facility with which trees can be grafted on each other as incidental on unknown differences in their vegetative systems so I believe that the still more complex laws governing the facility of first crosses are incidental on unknown differences in their reproductive systems These differences in both cases follow to a certain extent as might have been expected systematic affinity by which term every kind of resemblance and similarity between organic beings is attempted to be expressed The facts by no means seem to indicate that the greater or less facility of either grafting or crossing various species has been a special endowment although in the

case of crossing the difficulty is as important for the endurance and stability of specific forms as in the case of grafting it is unimportant for their welfare

Origin and Causes of the Sterility of first Crosses and of Hybrids

At one time it appeared to me probable as it has to others that the sterility of first crosses and of hybrids might have been slowly acquired through the natural selection of slightly lessened degrees of fertility which like any other variation spontaneously appeared in certain individuals of one variety when crossed with those of another variety For it would clearly be advantageous to two varieties or incipient species if they could be kept from blending on the same principle that when man is selecting at the same time two varieties it is necessary that he should keep them separate In the first place it may be remarked that species inhabiting distinct regions are often sterile when crossed now it could clearly have been of no advantage to such separated species to have been rendered mutually sterile and consequently this could not have been effected through natural selection but it may perhaps be argued that if a species was rendered sterile with some one conspecific sterility with other species would follow as a necessary contingency In the second place it is almost as much opposed to the theory of natural selection as to that of special creation that in reciprocal crosses the male element of one form should have been rendered utterly impotent on a second form whilst at the same time the male element of this second form is enabled freely to fertilise the first form for this peculiar state of the reproductive system could hardly have been advantageous to either species

In considering the probability of natural selection having come into action in rendering species mutually sterile the greatest difficulty will be found to lie in the existence of many graduated steps from slightly lessened fertility to absolute sterility It may be admitted that it would profit an incipient species if it were rendered in some slight degree sterile when crossed with its parent for in all such other variety for the first bastardised offspring would be produced to communicate their blood with the various species of the nation But I will not take the trouble to reflect on the steps by which the first degree of sterility could be increased

through natural selection to that high degree which is common with so many species, and which is universal with species which have been differentiated against one of many ranks, will find the subject extraordinarily complete. All must reflect that it seems to me that this could not have been effected through natural selection. Take the case of two species which have crossed produced a wand

which I agree with material difficulties and which thus approached the small step towards isolation. It is an advance of this kind if the theory of natural selection be true, it must be an essential occurrence.

sections and sections of the trials are different by being locally accumulated by natural selection, from an advantage being brought directly against the community to which they belong. The communities with the same species but an individual maladaptation to some common feature of the red light, sterile have crossed with so that it is not the itself giving an advantage directly giving an advantage to the third individual of the same variety the leading to the preservation.

But we could be permitted to discuss the question of tail feathers with plants with color. I think that the right of the red variety must be due to some principle quite independent of the selection. Both Garton and Huxley have produced the same result in many species. Series can be formed from species which have crossed, and few and few seeds, the species which produce single seed but are affected by the pollen sterility of the species of the same genus. It is a reasonable possibility to select the more fertile individuals, which have already ceased to breed so that the accumulation of the right of the germ line effected cannot have been gained through selection and from the law of the gradual and gradual of fertility being so far from the the animal as it is still the same, many individuals that the use which it may be with the same or nearly the same in all cases.

We will now look a little more at the probable nature of the differences between species

which induce sterility in first crosses and in hybrids. In the case of first crosses, the greater the difference in effect given and in the

reaching the uterus as well as the ovum. A pistil too long for the pollen tube to reach the ovum. It has also been observed that with the pollen tube placed in the stigma for a distance of all species, the pollen tubes protrude, they do not penetrate the stigma face again. The male element may reach the female but be incapable of causing an embryo to be developed as seems to have been the case with some of the experiments on *Ficus*. A planarian can be grafted on these facts any more than why certain trees cannot be grafted on others. Lastly an embryo may be developed during the early period. This is all that has not been efficiently deduced but I believe from observations communicated to me by Mr. Huxley, who has had great experience in hybrid gophers and foxes, that the hybrid of the two species is very frequent cause of sterility in first crosses. Mr. Salt has recently given the

theory of these eggs had occurred. The majority of the first used eggs, the embryo had then been partially developed during the

the last time is known with the hybrids reduced from the first time to the second sometimes with and dwarfed and perish. The only fact which Max W. has recently given some striking case with hybrid willows. It may be here with the growth in some cases of partial sterility, the embryo with the growth of the male which had not been fertilized pass through the early stage of development and then perish like the embryos produced by crosses between different species. Until becoming acquainted with these facts, I was unwilling to believe in the frequent early

death of hybrid embryos for hybrids when once born are generally healthy and long lived as we see in the case of the common mule. Hybrids however

they are extremely liable to vary which seems to be partly due to their reproductive systems

are generally placed under suitable conditions of life. But a hybrid partakes of only half of the nature and constitution of its mother: it may therefore before birth, as long as it is nourished within its mother's womb or within the egg or seed produced by the mother, be exposed to conditions in some degree unsuitable and consequently be liable to perish at an early period, more especially as all very young beings are eminently sensitive to injurious or unnatural conditions of life. But after all the cause more probably lies in some imperfection in the

variations are eminently liable to vary as every experimentalist has observed

Thus we see that when organic beings are placed under new and unnatural conditions, and when hybrids are produced by the unnatural crossing of two species, the reproductive system independently of the general state of health is affected in a very similar manner. In the one case the conditions of life have been disturbed though often in so slight a degree as to be inappreciable by us; in the other case or that of hybrids the external conditions have remained the same but the organisation has been disturbed by two distinct structures and constitutions including of course the reproductive systems having been blended into one. For it is scarcely possible that two organisations should be compounded into one without some disturbance occurring in the development, or periodical action or mutual relations of the different parts and organs one to another or to the conditions of life. When hybrids are able to breed inter se they transmit to their offspring from generation to generation the same compounded organisation and hence we need not be surprised that their sterility though in some degree variable does not diminish: it is even apt to increase this being generally the result, as before explained of too close interbreeding. The above view of the sterility of hybrids being caused by two constitutions being compounded into one has been strongly maintained by Max Wichura.

It must however be owned that we cannot understand on the above or any other view several facts with respect to the sterility of hybrids for instance the unequal fertility of hybrids produced from reciprocal crosses or the increased sterility in the

subsequently exposed
In regard to the sterility of hybrids in which the sexual elements are

but when animals and plants are removed from their natural conditions they are extremely liable to have their reproductive systems seriously affected. This in fact is the great bar to the domestication of animals. Between the sterility thus superinduced and that of hybrids there are many points of similarity. In both cases the sterility is independent of general health and is often accompanied by excess of size or great luxuriance. In both cases the sterility occurs in various degrees: in both the male element is the most liable to be affected but sometimes the female more than the male. In both the tendency goes to a certain extent with systematic affinity for whole groups of animals and plants are rendered impotent by the same unnatural conditions and whole groups of species tend to produce sterile hybrids. On the other hand one species

fertile hybrids. No one can tell till he tries, whether any particular animal will breed under confinement, or any exotic plant seed freely under culture: nor can he tell till he tries whether any two species of a genus will produce more or less sterile hybrids. Lastly when organic beings are placed during several generations under conditions not natural to them

an explanation is offered why an organism, when placed under unnatural conditions is rendered sterile. All that I have attempted to show is that in two cases in some respects allied sterility is the common result—in the one case from the condition of life having been disturbed in the other case from the organisation having been disturbed by two organisations being compounded into one

ix

A similar parallelism holds good with a
allied yet very different class of facts. It is an
old and almost universal belief that a
considerable body of evidence which has

Spencer being that life depends on or consists
in the incessant action and reaction of various
forces, which as through out nature, are al-
ways tending toward an equilibrium and
which tend not slightly disturbed by any
change the vital forces gain in power

Reciprocal Dimorphism and Trimorphism

thers, &c from the soil climate to an
other and back again. During the con-ales-
cence of animals, great benefit is derived from
almost any change in the habits of life again,
both with plants and animals, there is the
clear tendency that cross between in-
dividuals of the same species which differ to a

This subject may be here briefly discussed
and will be found to throw some light on hy-
bridism. Several plants belonging to different
orders present two forms, which exist in ab-
solute numerical and which differ in no respect
except in the reproductive organs of the

be subjected to slightly different conditions,
which has slightly varied growth and
fruiting off the plant, as well as seen,
organ be gradually led to certain un-
iform conditions and then to the
subjected as to conditions, to consid-
erable change in conditions, frequently
are rendered more less fertile and known
that cross between two forms, which be-
come not only peculiarly different, produce
hybrids which are almost always in some de-
gree fertile. I am fully persuaded that this
double parallelism by no means an accident
or an illusion. It will be able to explain why
the leopards and multitude of the animals
are not all of breed when kept under
only partial confinement in the natural coun-
try will be able to explain the many causes
of hybridism being so general. It will be
the same thing be it in plants or in animals,
the race of some of the created animals,
which have been subjected to war and
not if in conditions, are quite different to-
gether although they are descended from dis-
tinct species, which I probably have been
noticed as aboriginally crossed. The two
parallel series of facts seem to be connected
together by some common but known bond
which is essentially related to the principle of
this principle according to Mr Herbert

tamens in the size and colour of the pollen
grains, and in some other respects and as in
each of the three forms there are two sets of
stamens, the three forms possess altogether
six sets of stamens and of the kinds of pistils.
The organs so proportioned in length to
each other that half the stamens in two of the
form stand at right angles with the stigma of the
third form. When shown the result
has been confirmed by their observations that,
in order to obtain full fertility with the
plants, it is necessary that the stigma of the
form should be fertilised by pollen taken
from the stamens of corresponding light in
another form. So that with dimorphic species
two unions, which may be called legitimate
are fully fertile and two which may be called
illegitimate are more or less infertile. With
trimorphic species six unions are legitimate or
fully fertile—and twelve are illegitimate,
more or less infertile.

The infertility which may be observed in
artificially crossed and trimorphic plants
when they are legitimately fertilised is
by pollen taken from stamens of corresponding
growth with the pistil of the same
degree up to absolute and total infertility in
the same manner as occurs in cross-ges-
tation between the dog and the bitch in the
latter case depicted in an eminent degree in
the conditions of the human race. I am per-
suaded so that the fact with legitimate
mixture is like when that if pollen of dis-
tinct species be placed on the stigma of the
other and its own pollen be afterwards, after
a considerable interval of time placed on the

same stigma its action is so strongly prepotent that it generally annihilates the effect of the foreign pollen so it is with the pollen of the several forms of the same species for legitimate pollen is strongly prepotent over illegitimate pollen when both are placed on the same stigma I ascertained this by fertilising several flowers first illegitimately and twenty-four hours afterwards legitimately with the pollen taken from a peculiarly coloured variety and all the seedlings were similarly coloured this shows that the legitimate pollen though applied twenty-four hours subsequently had wholly destroyed or prevented the action of the previously applied illegitimate pollen Again as in making reciprocal crosses between the same two species there is occasionally a great difference in the result so the same thing occurs with trimorphic plants for instance the mid-styled form of *Lythrum salicaria* was illegitimately fertilised with the greatest ease by pollen from the longer stamens of the short-styled form and yielded many seeds but the latter form did not yield a single seed when fertilised by the longer stamens of the mid-styled form

In all these respects and in others which might be added the forms of the same undoubted species when illegitimately united behave in exactly the same manner as do two distinct species when crossed This led me carefully to observe during four years many seedlings raised from several illegitimate unions The chief result is that these illegitimate plants as they may be called are not fully fertile It is possible to raise from dimorphic species both long-styled and short-styled illegitimate plants and from trimorphic plants all three illegitimate forms These can then be properly united in a legitimate manner When this is done there is no apparent reason why they should not yield as many seeds as did their parents when legitimately fertilised But such is not the case They are all infertile in various degrees some being so utterly and incurably sterile that they did not yield during four seasons a single seed or even seed-capule The sterility of these illegitimate plants when united with each other in a legitimate manner may be strictly compared with that of hybrids when crossed *inter se* If on the other hand a hybrid is crossed with either pure parent species the sterility is usually much lessened and so it is when an illegitimate plant is fertilised by a legitimate plant In the same manner as the sterility of hybrids does not always

run parallel with the difficulty of making the first cross between the two parent species, so the sterility of certain illegitimate plants was unusually great whilst the sterility of the union from which they were derived was by no means great With hybrids raised from the same seed capsule the degree of sterility is innately variable so it is in a marked manner with illegitimate plants Lastly many hybrids are profuse and persistent flowerers whilst other and more sterile hybrids produce few

plants

Altogether there is the closest identity in character and behaviour between illegitimate plants and hybrids It is hardly an exaggeration to maintain that illegitimate plants are hybrids produced within the limits of the same species by the improper union of certain forms whilst ordinary hybrids are produced from an improper union between so-called distinct species We have also already seen that there is the closest similarity in all respects between first illegitimate unions and first crosses between distinct species This will perhaps be made more fully apparent by an illustration we may suppose that a botanist found two well-marked varieties (and such occur) of the long-styled form of the trimorphic *Lythrum salicaria* and that he determined to try by crossing whether they were specifically distinct He would find that they yielded only about one-fifth of the proper number of seeds, and that they behaved in all the other above-specified respects as if they had been two distinct species But to make the case sure he would raise plants from his supposed hybrid seed and he would find that the seedlings were miserably dwarfed and utterly sterile and that they behaved in all other respects like ordinary hybrids He might then maintain that he had actually proved in accordance with the common view that his two varieties were as good and as distinct species as any in the world but he would be completely mistaken

The facts now given on dimorphic and trimorphic plants are important because they show us first that the play of great fertility lessens fertility both in first crosses and in hybridisation and secondly because we may conclude that there is some unknown factor which corrects the infertility of illegitimate unions with that

IX

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thro gh lo g-contin ed d mest cat on b ad

same stigma its action is so strongly prepotent that it generally annihilates the effect of the foreign pollen so it is with the pollen of the several forms of the same species for legitimate pollen is strongly prepotent over illegitimate pollen when both are placed on the same stigma. I ascertained that

the seedlings were similarly coloured thus shows that the legitimate pollen though applied twenty four hours subsequently had wholly destroyed or prevented the action of the previously applied illegitimate pollen. Again as in making reciprocal crosses between the same two species there is occasionally a great difference in the result so the same thing occurs with trimorphic plants for instance the mid styled form of *Lythrum salicaria* was illegitimately fertilised with the greatest ease by pollen from the longer stamens and yielded no seedlings the longer stamens of the mid styled form

In all these respects and in others which might be added the forms of the same undoubted species when illegitimately united behave in exactly the same manner as do two distinct species when crossed. This led me carefully to observe during four years many seedlings raised from several illegitimate unions. The chief result is that these illegitimate plants as they may be called are not fully fertile. It is possible to raise from dimorphic species both long styled and short styled illegitimate plants and from trimorphic plants all three illegitimate forms. The one can then be properly united in a legitimate manner. When this is done there is no apparent reason why

various degrees some being so utterly and incurably sterile that they did not yield during four seasons a single seed or even seed capsule. The sterility of these illegitimate plants when united with each other in a legitimate manner may be strictly compared with that of hybrids when crossed *inter se*. If on the other hand a hybrid is crossed with either pure parent species the sterility is usually much lessened and so it is when an illegitimate plant is fertilised by a legitimate plant. In the same manner as the sterility of hybrids does not always

run parallel with the difficulty of making the first cross between the two parent species, so the sterility of certain illegitimate plants was unusually great whilst the sterility of the union from which they were derived was by no means great. With hybrids raised from the same seed capsule the degree of sterility is innately variable so it is in a marked manner with illegitimate plants. Lastly many hybrids are profuse and persistent flowerers, whilst other and more sterile hybrids produce few flowers.

plants

Altogether there is the closest identity in character and behaviour between illegitimate plants and hybrids. It is hardly an exaggeration to maintain that illegitimate plants are hybrids produced within the limits of the same species by the improper union of certain forms whilst ordinary hybrids are produced from an improper union between so-called distinct species. We have all already seen that there is the closest similarity in all respects between first illegitimate unions and first

two well marked varieties (and such occur) of the long styled form of the trimorphic *Lythrum salicaria* and that he determined to try by crossing whether they were specifically distinct. He would find that they yielded only about one fifth of the proper number of seeds and that they behaved in all the other above-specified respects as if they had been two distinct species. But to make the case sure he would raise plants from his supposed hybrid seed and he would find that the seedlings were miserably dwarfed and utterly sterile and that they behaved in all other respects like ordinary hybrids. He might then maintain that he had actually proved in accordance with the common view that his two varieties were as good and as distinct species as any in the world but he would be completely mistaken.

The facts now given on trimorphic and trimorphic plants are important because they show us first that the physiological effect of lessened fertility of the first crosses and in hybrids is no safe criterion of specific distinction secondly because we may conclude that there is some unknown bond which connects the infertility of illegitimate unions with that

reputed to be anetics, and which he tested by the *ecstilon* m l v b r c p ocal crosses, and he found the *mongrel offspring* perfectly fertile. But one of these five anetics, when used the as the father and mother and crossed with the *ecstilon glutinosa*, always yielded hybrids not so sterile as those which were produced from the furth anetics when crossed with *glutinosa*. Hence the reproductive system of this one anetic must have been in some manner and in some degree modified.

From these facts it can be maintained that anetics when crossed are invariably quite fertile. From the great difficulty of ascertaining the infertility of anetics in a state of nature for a supposed variety proved to be infertile in an *ad hoc* way, would almost universally be ranked as a species — from man it adding no external characters in his domestic anetics, and from such anetics not having been exposed for very long periods to uniform conditions of life — from these several considerations we may conclude that fertility does not constitute fundamental distinction between anetics and species when crossed. The general sterility of crossed species may safely be looked on, not as a special requirement or endowment, but as incidental on changes of an unknown nature in their sexual elements.

Hybrids and Mongrels compared independently of their fertility

Independently of the question of fertility the offspring of species and of anetics when crossed may be compared in several other respects. Gartner whose strong wish it was to draw distinct line between species and anetics, could find very few and, as it seems to me quite unimportant differences between the so-called hybrid offspring of species, and the so-called mongrel offspring of varieties. And, on the other hand, they agree most closely in many important respects.

I would here discuss this subject with tremendous brevity. The most important distinction is, that the first generation mongrels are more variable than hybrids. But Gartner admits that hybrids from species which have long been cultivated are often variable in the first generation and I have indeed seen striking instances of this fact. Gartner further admits that hybrids between very closely allied species are more variable than those from very distinct species and thus shows that the difference

in the degree of variability gradates away. When in mongrels and the more fertile hybrids are propagated for several generations, next to none of variability in the offspring, in both cases notwithstanding some instances of both hybrids and mongrels retaining a uniform character could be given. The variability however in the successive generations of mongrels is, perhaps greater than in hybrids.

This greater variability in mongrels than in hybrids does not seem at all surprising. For the parents of mongrels are anetics, and mongrels are mostly anetics (very few experiments have been tried on natural varieties) and this implies that there has been recent variability which would often continue and would account for that arising from the act of crossing. The slight variability of hybrids in the first generation in contrast with that in the succeeding generations, a curious fact and deserves attention. For it bears relation to the law which I have taken of one of the causes of ordinary variability namely that the reproductive system from being more sensitive to changed conditions of life fails under these circumstances to perform its proper function of producing offspring of similar kind in all respects to the parent form. Now hybrids in the first generation are descended from species (excluding those long-cultivated) which have not had their reproductive systems in any way affected, and they are not variable in their systems themselves as their reproductive systems seriously affected and their descendants are highly variable.

But return to our comparison of mongrels and hybrids. Gartner states that mongrels are more habit than hybrids to revert to either parent-form but this, if true is certainly only a difference in degree. Moreover Gartner expressly states that hybrids from long cultivated plants are more subject to reversion than hybrids from species in their natural state and this probably explains the singular difference in the results arrived at by different observers thus Max Wichura doubts whether hybrids ever revert to the parent forms, and has experimented on uncultivated species of willow whilst Vudin, with the hand in assistance in the two best terms with almost universal tendency to reversion in hybrids, and he experimented with five cultivated plants. Gartner further states that when any two species, although most closely allied to each other are crossed with a third species, the hybrids

cases with species having a peculiar constitution sterility might occasionally be thus caused. Thus as I believe we can understand why with domesticated animals varieties have not been produced which are mutually sterile and why with plants only a few such cases immediately to be given have been observed.

The real difficulty in our present subject is not, as it appears to me, why domestic varieties have not become mutually infertile when crossed, but why this has so generally occurred with natural varieties as soon as they have been permanently modified in a sufficient degree to take rank as species. We are far from precisely knowing the cause, nor is this surprising, seeing how profoundly ignorant we are in regard to the normal and abnormal action of the reproductive system. But we can see that species, owing to their struggle for existence with numerous competitors, will have been exposed during long periods of time to more uniform conditions than have domestic varieties, and this may well make a wide difference in the result. For we know how commonly wild animals and plants, when taken from their natural conditions and subjected to captivity, are rendered sterile, and the reproductive functions of organic beings, which have always lived under natural conditions, would probably in like manner be eminently sensitive to the influence of an unnatural cross. Domesticated productions, on the other hand, which, as shown by the mere fact of their domestication, were not originally highly sensitive to changes in their conditions of life, and which can now generally resist with undiminished fertility repeated changes of conditions, might be expected to produce varieties which would be little liable to have their reproductive powers injuriously affected by the act of crossing with other varieties which had originated in a like manner.

I have not as yet spoken as if the varieties of the same species were invariably fertile when intercrossed. But it is impossible to resist the evidence of the existence of a certain amount of sterility in the few following cases, which I will briefly abstract. The evidence is at least as good as that from which we believe in the sterility of a multitude of species. The evidence is, also, derived from hostile witnesses, who in all other cases consider fertility and sterility as safe criterions of specific distinction. Gartner kept during several years a dwarf kind of maize with yellow seeds, and a tall variety with red seeds growing near each

other in his garden, and although these plants have separated sexes, they never naturally crossed. He then fertilised thirteen flowers of the one kind with pollen of the other, but only a single head produced any seed, and this one head produced only five grains. Manipulation in this case could not have been injurious, as the plants have separated sexes. No one I believe has suspected that these varieties of maize are distinct species, and it is important to notice that the hybrid plants thus raised were themselves perfectly fertile, so that even Gartner did not venture to consider the two varieties as specifically distinct.

Girou de Buzareingues crossed three varieties of gourd, which like the maize has separated sexes, and he asserts that their mutual fertilization is by so much the less easy as their differences are greater. How far the experiments may be trusted, I know not, but the forms experimented on are ranked by Sauret, who mainly founds his classification by the test of infertility as varieties, and Vaudou has come to the same conclusion.

The following case is far more remarkable, and seems at first incredible, but it is the result of an astonishing number of experiments made during many years on nine species of *Fer*

seed than the similarly coloured varieties of the same species. Moreover he asserts that, when yellow and white varieties of one species are crossed with yellow and white varieties of a distinct species, more seed is produced by the crosses between the similarly coloured flowers, than between those which are differently coloured. Mr Scott also has experimented on the species and varieties of *Verbascum*, and although unable to confirm Gartner's results on the crossing of the distinct species, he finds that the dissimilarly coloured varieties of the same species yield fewer seeds in the proportion of 86 to 100 than the similarly coloured varieties. Yet these varieties differ in no respect except in the colour of their flowers, and one variety can sometimes be raised from the seed of another.

Kolreuter, whose accuracy has been confirmed by every subsequent observer, has proved the remarkable fact that one particular variety of the common tobacco was more fertile than the other varieties when crossed with a widely distinct species. He experimented on five forms which are commonly

reproduces itself. There is no more reason
I think that species have been specially
dowered than any other faculty to per-
form the crossing and blending in nature
than I think that trees have been specially

production to nearly uniform conditions of life

It is not surprising that the difficulty in
cropping any tobacco species, and the fertility of

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c r o s s l p e c c o f e d t d i f f e c t i n
t l s e l l t a, B t n t l a s e f
d t t p e c e s t l s e a l l t s a n d s o
g a l l b e c o m m r e l s a m o d f i e d
l e a d t t t a l f r u i t w l t
h r i t t s e e t a j s o m k e r e
l i t t p e c e s l g b e e p o s e d f l

between the species which are crossed. As the
species are grafted that the facility of selecting a suitable
cross, and the fertility of the hybrid thus pro-
duced and the capacity of being grafted to-
gether, the high level of capacity of the
product with different circumstances —
should all run to a certain extent, parallel
with the system of affinity of the forms be-
jected to experience of the system of affinity
and the resemblance of all kinds.

First cross between form known to be
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as rule and the mongrel offspring

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used with another species the hybrids do not differ much. But this conclusion as far as I can make out, is founded on a single experiment and seems directly opposed to the results of several experiments made by Kolreuter.

Such alone are the unimportant differences which Gartner is able to point out between hybrid and mongrel plants. On the other hand the degrees and kinds of

the same laws. When two species are crossed one has sometimes a prepotent power of impressing its likeness on the hybrid. So I believe it to be with varieties of plants and with animal one variety certainly often has this prepotent power over another.

mongrel plants from a reciprocal cross. Both hybrids and mongrels can be reduced to either pure parent form by repeated crosses in successive generations with either parent.

These several remarks are apparently applicable to animals but the subject is here much complicated partly owing to the existence of secondary sexual characters but more especially owing to prepotency in transmitting likeness running more strongly in one sex than in the other both when one species is crossed with another and when one variety is crossed with another variety. For instance I think those authors are right who maintain that the ass has a prepotent power over the horse so that both the mule and the hinny resemble more closely the ass than the horse but that the prepotency runs more strongly in the male than in the female ass, so that the mule which is the offspring of the male

is

is

ness has been laid by some authors on the supposed fact that it is only with mongrels that the offspring are not intermediate in character but closely resemble one of their parents but this does sometimes occur with hybrids yet I grant much less frequently than with mongrels. Looking to the cases which I have collected of cross-bred animals closely resembling one parent the resemblances seem chiefly confined to characters almost monstrous in their nature and which have suddenly appeared—such as albinism

melanism deficiency of tail or horns, or additional fingers and toes and do not relate to characters which have been slowly acquired through selection. A tendency to sudden reversions to the perfect character of either parent would also be much more likely to occur with mongrels which are descended from varieties often suddenly produced and semi-monstrous in character than with hybrids which are descended from species slowly and naturally produced. On the whole I entirely agree with Dr Prosper Lucas, who after arranging an enormous body of facts with respect to animals comes to the conclusion that the laws of resemblance of the child to its parents are the same whether the two parents differ little or much from each other namely in the union of individuals of the same variety or of different varieties or of distinct species.

Independently of the question of fertility and sterility in all other respects there seems to be a general and close similarity in the offspring of crossed species and of crossed varieties. If we look at species as having been specially created and at varieties as having been produced by secondary laws, this similarity would be an astonishing fact. But it harmonises perfectly with the view that there is no essential distinction between species and varieties.

Summary of Chapter

First crosses between forms, sufficiently distinct to be ranked as species and their hybrids are very generally but not universally sterile. The sterility is of all degrees and is often so slight that the most careful experimentalists have arrived at diametrically opposite conclusions in ranking forms by this test. The sterility is innately variable in individuals of the same species and is eminently susceptible to the action of favourable and unfavourable conditions. The degree of sterility does not strictly follow systematic affinity but is governed by several curious and complex laws. It is generally different and sometimes widely different in reciprocal crosses between the same two species. It is not always equal in degree in a first cross and in the hybrids produced from this cross.

In the same manner as in grafting trees, the capacity in one species or variety to take on another is incidental on differences, generally of an unknown nature in their vegetative systems, so in crossing the greater or less fertility of one species to unite with another is incidental on unknown differences in their

tend to support the old and unimproved forms.

By the theory of natural selection all the species have been connected with the parent species of each genus, by differences not greater than we see between the natural and domestic varieties of the same species at the present day and these parent species, now generally extinct, have in their turn been similarly connected with more ancient forms and so on backwards, always converging to the common ancestor of each great class, so that the number of intermedial and transitional links between the existing and extinct species, must have been inconceivably great. But assuredly if this theory be true, such have lived upon the earth.

On the Lapse of Time as inferred from the rate of Deposition and extent of Denudation

Independently of our not finding fossil remains of such infinitely numerous connecting links, it may be objected that time cannot have sufficed for so great an amount of organic change and changes having been effected slowly. It is hardly possible for me to recall to the reader who is not a practical geologist, the facts leading the mind feeble to comprehend the lapse of time. He who can read Mr Charles Lyell's grand work on the *Principles of Geology* which the future historian will recognise as having produced a revolution in natural science and yet does not admit how vast have been the past periods of time may at once close this volume. Not that it suffices to study the *Principles of Geology* or to read special treatises by different observers on separate formations, and to mark how each of them attempts to give an inadequate idea of the duration of each formation, or of each stratum. We can best gain some idea of past time by knowing the agencies at work, and learning how deeply the surface of the land has been denuded, and how much sediment has been deposited. As Lyell has remarked the extent and thickness of our sedimentary formations are the result and the measure of the denudation which the earth's crust has here undergone. Therefore man should ransack for himself the great piles of superimposed strata, and catch the rivulets bringing down mud, and the rivers carrying the sea-cliffs, in order to comprehend something about the duration of past time the monuments of which we all around us.

It is good to wander along the coast, when formed of most of the hardest rocks, and mark the process of degradation. The tides in most cases reach the cliff only for a short time twice a day and the waves eat into them only when the waves are charged with sand or pebbles. For there is good evidence that pure water effects nothing in wearing away rock. At last the base of the cliff is undermined, the fragments fall down, and these remaining fixed have to be worn away once more, until after being

of rocky cliffs which is undergoing degradation we find that it is only here and there also a short length of round promontory that the cliffs are at the present time sufficient. The appearance of the surface and the elevation show that between years have elapsed since the waves washed their base.

We have, however, recently learnt from the observations of Ramsay in the case of many excellent observers—of Jukes, G. H. Croll, and others, that subaerial degradation is a much more important agent than coastal action. The power of the waves. The whole surface of the land is exposed to the chemical action of the air and of the rain water with its dissolved carbonic acid, and in cold countries to frost the disintegrated matter carried down in gentle slopes during heavy rain, and to a greater extent than might be supposed, especially in arid districts, by the wind. It is then transported by the streams and rivers, which when rapid deepen the channels, and transport the fragments. On a rainy day in a gently undulating country we see the effects of subaerial degradation in the muddy rills which flow down the slope. Messrs. Ramsay and Whateley have shown and the observation is most striking, especially that the great lines of escarpment in the Wealden district and those ranging across England which formerly were looked at as ancient sea-coasts, cannot have been the result, for each is composed of one and the same formation, but the sea-cliffs are now the result of

CHAPTER V

ON THE IMPERFECTION OF THE GEOLOGICAL RECORD

IN the sixth chapter I enumerated the chief objections which might be justly urged against the views maintained in this volume. Most of them have now been discussed. One namely the distinctness of specific form and their not being blended together by innumerable transitional links is a very obvious difficulty. I assigned reasons why such links do not commonly occur at the present day under the circumstances apparently most favourable for their presence namely on an extensive and continuous area with graduated physical conditions. I endeavoured to show that the life of each species depends in a more important manner on the presence of other already defined organic forms than on climate and therefore that the really governing conditions of life do not graduate away quite insensibly like heat or moisture. I endeavoured also to show that intermediate varieties from existing in lesser numbers than the forms which they connect will generally be beaten out and exterminated during the course of further modification and improvement. The main cause however of innumerable intermediate links not now occurring everywhere throughout nature depends on the very process of natural selection through which new varieties continually take the places of and supplant their parent forms. But just in proportion as this process of extermination has acted on an enormous scale so must the number of intermediate varieties which have formerly existed be truly enormous. Why then is not every geological formation and every stratum full of such intermediate links? Geology assuredly does not reveal any such finely graduated organic chain and this perhaps is the most obvious and serious objection which can be urged against the theory. The explanation lies as I believe in the extreme imperfection of the geological record.

In the first place it should always be borne in mind what sort of intermediate forms must on the theory have formerly existed. I have found it difficult when looking at any two species to avoid picturing to myself forms directly intermediate between them. But this is a wholly false view we should always look for forms intermediate between each species and a common but unknown progenitor and the

progenitor will generally have differed in some respects from all its modified descendants. To give a simple illustration the fantail and pouter pigeons are both descended from the rock pigeon if we possessed all the intermediate varieties which have ever existed we should

tail and pouter none for instance combining a tail somewhat expanded with a crop somewhat enlarged the characteristic features of these two breeds. These two breeds moreover

have determined from a mere comparison of their structure with that of the rock pigeon, *C. livia* whether they had descended from this species or from some allied form such as *C. nas*.

So with natural species if we look to forms very distinct, for instance to the horse and tapir we have no reason to suppose that links directly intermediate between them ever existed but between each and an unknown common parent. The common parent will have had in its whole organisation much general resemblance to the tapir and to the horse but in some points of structure may have differed considerably from both even perhaps more than they differ from each other. Hence in all such cases we look in vain for the parent form of any two or more species even if closely compared the structure of the parents perfect.

It is just possible by the theory that one of two living forms might have descended from the other for instance a horse from a tapir and in this case direct intermediate links will have existed between them. But with a case would imply that the form had remained for a very long period unaltered and lost its descendants and undergone a vast amount of change and the principle of competition between organisms between child and parent still rather than a very rare variant for in all cases the new and improved forms of life

years. But let it be borne in mind, in relation to the subject of this work, what hundred years implies, represented as it is by a measure utterly insignificant in a hall of the above dimensions. Several eminent breeders, during single lifetime, have so largely modified some of the higher animals which propagate their kind much more slowly than most of the low animals, that the ha formed what we will deserve to be called new sub-breeds. Few men have attended with due care to an one strain for more than half century so that a hundred years represents the work of two breeders in succession. It is not to be supposed that species in a state of nature ever change so quickly as domestic animals under the guidance of methodical selection. The comparison would be in every way fairer with the effects which flow from unconscious selection, that is the preservation of the most useful or beautiful animals, than the intention of modifying the breed, but in this process of unconscious selection, various breeds have been sensibly changed in the course of two or three centuries.

Species, however, probably change much more slowly and within the same country only a few change at the same time. This slowness follows from all the inhabitants of the same country being already so well adapted to each other that new places in the point of nature do not occur until after long intervals, due to the occurrence of physical changes of some kind, or through the immigration of new forms. Moreover variations or individual differences of the right nature by which some of the inhabitants might be better fitted to their new powers under the altered circumstances, would not always occur to meet the unfortunate want of any means of determining, according to the standard of years, how long a period it takes to modify species in relation to the subject of time in its return.

Of the Poverty of Paleontological Collections

Let us turn to our richest geological museum and what poorer sight we behold than our collection are an insect is admitted to every one. The remark of that illustrious paleontologist, Ed. and Forbes, should not be forgotten, namely that very many fossils were are known and named from single and few broken specimens or from few specimens converted on some one rock. Only small part of the surface of the earth has been geologically explored and no part with

sufficient care as the important discoveries made every year in Europe prove. No organism whole or soft can be preserved. Shells and bones decay and disappear when left on the bottom of the sea, where sediment is not accumulating. We probably take a quite erroneous view when we assume that sediment is being deposited nearly throughout the whole bed of the sea, at a rate sufficiently quick to embed and preserve fossil remains. Throughout an enormous large proportion of the ocean, the bright bluish tint of the water bespeaks its poverty. In many cases a record of a formation conformably covered, after an immense interval of time, by another and later formation, without the land rising and being again sufficed in the interval any wear and tear seem applicable only in the few of the bottom of the sea not rarely in the ages in an unaltered condition. The remains which become embedded if in sand or gravel will, when the beds are upraised, generally be dissolved by the percolation of rain-water charged with carbonic acid. Some of the many kinds of animals which live on the beach between high and low water mark seem to be rarely preserved. For instance the several species of the *Chthamalus* (sub-family of sessile crustaceans) coat the rocks all over the world in infinite numbers, they are all strictly littoral, with the exception of a single Mediterranean species, which inhabit deep water and thus has been found fossil in Sicily, whereas not one other species has been found to be in any tertiary formation. It is known that the genus *Chthamalus* existed during the Chalk period. Lastly many great deposits requiring a vast length of time for their accumulation, are entirely destitute of organic remains, without our being able to assign any reason one of the most striking instances is that of the Flanch formation, which consists of shale and sands on several thousand, occasional even six thousand feet in thickness, and extending for at least 400 miles from Vienna to Switzerland and although this great mass has been most carefully searched, no fossils, except a few vegetable remains, have been found.

With respect to the terrestrial productions which lived during the Secondary and Tertiary periods, it is pernicious to state that our evidence is fragmentary in an extreme degree. For instance until recently not a land shell was known belonging to either of these last periods, with the exception of one species discovered by C. L. and D. D. Watson in the

to the rocks of which they are composed having resisted subaerial denudation better than the surrounding surface this surface consequently has been gradually lowered with the lines of harder rock left projecting Nothing impresses the mind with the vast duration of time according to our ideas of time more forcibly than the conviction that

rounded pebbles, each of which bears the stamp of time they are good to show how slowly the mass must have been heaped together Professor Ramsay has given me the maximum thickness, from actual measurement in most cases, of the successive formations in different parts of Great Britain and this is the result —

	Feet
Palaeozoic strata (not including igneous bed)	5 154
Secondary strata	13,100
Tertiary strata	2, 10

to great results

When thus impressed with the slow rate at which the land is worn away through subaerial and littoral action it is good in order to appreciate the vast duration of time to consider on the one hand the masses of rock which have been removed over many extensive areas and on the other hand the thickness of our sedimentary formations I remember having been much struck when viewing volcanic islands which have been worn by the waves and pared all round into perpendicular cliffs of one or two thousand feet in height for the gentle slope of the lava streams due to their formerly liquid state showed at a glance how far the hard rocky beds had once extended into the open ocean The same story is told still more plainly by faults—those great cracks along which the strata have been upheaved on one side or thrown down on the other to the height or depth of thousands of feet for since the crust cracked and it makes no great difference whether the upheaval was sudden or as most geologists now believe was slow and effected by many starts the surface of the land

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varies from 600 to 3000 feet Professor Ramsay has published an account of a lava flow in Anglesea of 300 feet and he informs me that he fully believes that there is one in Merionethshire of 1000 feet yet in these cases there is nothing on the surface of the land to show such prodigious movements the pile of rocks on either side of the crack having been smoothly swept away

On the other hand in all parts of the world the piles of sedimentary strata are of wonderful thickness In the Cordillera I estimated one mass of conglomerate at ten thousand feet and although conglomerates have probably been accumulated at a quicker rate than finer sediment yet from being formed of worn and

—making altogether 7258½ feet that is, very nearly thirteen and three quarters British miles Some of the formation which are represented in England by thin beds are thousands of feet in thickness on the Continent More over between each successive formation we have in the opinion of most geologists, blank periods of enormous length So that the lofty pile of sedimentary rocks in Britain gives but an inadequate idea of the time which has elapsed during their accumulation The consideration of these various facts impresses the mind almost in the same manner as does the vain endeavour to grapple with the idea of eternity

Nevertheless this impression is partly false Mr Croll in an interesting paper remarks that we do not err in forming too great a conception of the length of geological periods, but in estimating them by years. When geologists look at large and complicated phenomena, and then at the figures representing several million years the two produce a totally different effect on the mind and the figures are at once pronounced too small In regard to subaerial denudation Mr Croll shows, by calculating the known amount of sediment annually brought down by certain rivers, relatively to their areas of drainage that 1000 feet of solid rock as it became gradually disintegrated would thus be removed from the mean level of the whole area in the course of six million years This seems an astonishing result and some considerations lead to the suspicion that it may be too large but even if halved or quartered it is still very surprising Few of us, however, know what a million really means Mr Croll gives the following illustration take a narrow strip of paper 83 feet 4 inches in length and stretch it along the wall of a large hall then mark off at one end the tenth of an inch The tenth of an inch will represent one hundred years, and the entire strip a million

years. But let the borne in mind, in relation to the subject of this work, what hundred years implies, represented as it is by a measure of time insignificant in a half of the above dimensions. Several eminent breeders, during a single lifetime, have so largely modified some of the higher animals which propagate their kind much more slowly than most of the lower animals, that they have formed what well deserves to be called new sub-breeds. Few men have attended with due care to any one strain for more than half a century so that hundred years represents the work of two breeders in succession. It is not to be supposed that species are made of nature or chance so quickly as domestic animals under the guidance of mechanical selection. The comparison would be in every way unfair with the effects which follow from unconscious selection, that is the preservation of the most useful or beautiful animals. As to the process of moulding, the breed is it by this process of unconscious selection, various termites have been sensibly changed in the course of two or three centuries.

Species, however, probably change much more slowly and within the same country or on the same change at the same time. This slowness may arise from all the instabilities of the same country being so well adapted to each other that new places in the power of nature do not occur until after long intervals due to the occurrence of physical changes of some kind, or through the immigration of new forms.

Moreover, anomalies or individual differences of the right nature which some of the individuals might be better fitted to their new places under the altered circumstances, would not all occur at once. Unfortunately we have no means of determining, according to the standard of years, how long a period it takes to mould species but to the subject of this we will return.

Of the Power of Paucicardian and Corrections

Now let us turn to our richest geological museum and what picture unfolds before us. That our corrections are an effort is admitted by every one. The remark of that admirable paleontologist, Ed. and Forbes, would never be found on a point that every man (and) woman are known and named from name and often broken specimens or from a few specimens preserved in some one spot. Only a small portion of the surface of the earth has been examined, and no part with

sufficient care, as the important discoveries made every year in Europe prove. No organism wholly soft can be preserved. Shells and bones decay and disappear when left on the bottom of the sea, where sediment is not accumulating. It probably takes a quite erroneous view when we assume that sediment is being deposited over nearly the whole bed of the sea, at a rate sufficiently quick to embed and preserve fossil remains. Throughout an enormous large proportion of the ocean, the bright blue tint of the water bespeaks its purity. The many cases on record of a formation conformably covered, after an immense interval of time, by another and later formation, without the underlying bed having suffered in the interval any wear and tear, seem explicable only on the view of the bottom of the sea not rarely lying for ages in an unaltered condition. The remains which do become embedded, if in sand or gravel, will, when the beds are upraised, generally be dissolved by the percolation of rain-water charged with carbonic acid. Some of the many kinds of animals which live on the beach between high and low water mark seem to be rarely preserved. For instance, the several species of the *Chamaeleon* (swallow) of vesicle crinoids coat the rocks all over the world in innumerable numbers, they are all strictly littoral, with the exception of a single Mediterranean species, which inhabit deep water and this has been found fossil in Sicily whereas not one other species has hitherto been found in any tertiary formation. It is known that the genus *Chamaeleon* existed during the Chalk period. Laith many great deposits requiring a vast length of time for their accumulation, are entirely devoid of organic remains, without our being able to assign an reason one of the most striking instances is that in the Eocene formation, which consists of sand and sandstone several thousand, occasionally even six thousand feet in thickness, and extends for at least 500 miles from Vienna to Switzerland and although this great mass has been most carefully searched, no fossils, except a few vegetable remains, have been found.

With respect to the terrestrial productions which lived during the Tertiary and Paleozoic periods, it is equally true to state that our evidence is fragmentary in an extreme degree. For instance, until recently not a land shell was known from the Eocene or these last periods. The discovery of one species discovered by Dr. C. L. and Dr. D. D. Wilson in the

to the rocks of which they are composed having resisted subaerial denudation better than the surrounding surface this surface consequently has been gradually lowered with the line of harder rock left perfectly as a

rounded pebbles each of which bears the stamp of time they are good to show how slowly the mass must have been heaped together Professor Ramsay has given me the maximum thickness, from actual measurement in most cases of the successive formations in different parts of Great Britain and this is the result —

Primary strata (not including igneous bed)	57,134
Secondary strata	13,190
Tertiary strata	2,210

—making altogether 72,534 feet that is, very nearly thirteen and three quarters British miles Some of the formations which are represented in England by thin beds are thousands of feet in thickness on the Continent Moreover between each successive formation we have in the opinion of most geologists blank periods of enormous length So that the lofty pile of sedimentary rocks in Britain gives but an inadequate idea of the time which has elapsed during their accumulation The consideration of these various facts impresses the mind almost in the same manner as does the vain endeavour to grapple with the idea of eternity

Nevertheless this impression is partly false Mr Croll in an interesting paper remarks that we do not err in forming too great a conception of the length of geological periods, but in estimating them by years. When geologists look at large and complicated phenomena and then at the figures representing several million years the two produce a totally different effect on the mind and the figures are at once pronounced too small In regard to subaerial denudation Mr Croll shows, by calculation the known amount of sediment annually brought down by certain rivers, relatively to their areas of drainage that 1000 feet of solid rock as it became gradually denigrated would thus be removed from the mean level of the whole area in the course of six million years This seems an astonishing result, and some considerations lead to the supposition that it may be too large but even if halved or quartered it still very strongly impresses upon us, however known what an immense really means Mr Croll calculates that a gull would take a narrow trip of 1 per 83 feet 3 inches in length at 100 feet a day to get the full length of the mark off at or with it it takes an inch the tenth of an inch a trip each in hundred years at the future trip will be

than the conviction thus gained that subaerial agencies which apparently have so little power and which seem to work so slowly have produced great results

When thus impressed with the slow rate at which the land is worn away through subaerial and littoral action it is good in order to appreciate the past duration of time to consider on the one hand the masses of rock which have been removed over many extensive areas and on the other hand the thickness of our sedimentary formations I remember having been much struck when viewing volcanic islands which have been worn by the waves and pared all round into perpendicular cliffs of one or two thousand feet in height for the gentle slope of the lava streams, due to their formerly liquid state showed at a glance how far the hard rocky beds had once extended into the open ocean The same story is told still more plainly by faults—the great cracks along which the strata have been upheaved on one side or thrown down on the other to the height or depth of thousands of feet for since the crust cracked and it makes no great difference whether the upheaval was sudden or as most geologists now believe was slow and effected by many starts the surface of the land has been so completely planed down that no trace of these vast dislocations is externally

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varies from 600 to 3000 feet Prof Ramsay has published an account of a low throw in Anglesea of 2300 feet and he informs me that he fully believes that there is one in Merionethshire of 1000 feet yet in these cases there is nothing on the surface of the land to show such prodigious movements the pile of rocks on either side of the crack having been smoothly swept away

On the other hand in all parts of the world the piles of sedimentary strata are of wonderful thickness In the Cordillera I estimated on masses of conglomerate at ten thousand feet and although conglomerates have probably been accumulated at a quicker rate than finer sediments yet from being so long of worn and

covered by which will hardly last to distant geological age was deposited & ring down and escalation of level, and thus gained con-

that such rocks could have been solidified and crystallized while uncovered but if the metamorphic action occurred at profound depths of the ocean, the former protecting mantle of rock may not have been eroded. Admittedly then that gneiss, mica schist, granite, etc., are necessarily cooled up, I would

as surface to keep the sea shallow and to
and preserve the remains before the
had time to decay. On the other hand, as long
as the bed of the remains stationary thick
deposits and not has been accumulated the
main parts, which are the most durable
to life can this have happened during
the normal periods of the time to speak
more accurately the bed which were thus ac-
cumulated will generally have been destroyed
by being raised and brought within the
limits of the coast action.

These remarks apply to the littoral and sub-littoral deposits. In the case of an inner and shallow sea, such as that of the Malay Archipelago, where the depth varies from 40 to 60 fathoms, a study of the littoral formations might be of interest during periods of low tide, but it is not of great value.

As it was formed in a void it must be much more solid and be capped by a driving force, such as the wind, to run good chance of being worn to some fine degradation as to the action of the sea during subsequent erosion of it. It has, however, been suggested that if a part of it is a salt run and before being worn and eroded, the deposit formed of the wind may cement it such not thick, might at least become protected by fresh accumulation and thus be preserved for long periods.

M. H. G. has previously been believed that within the level of considerable horizontal extension and being widely destroyed. But the new data suggest the fact that the late period metamorphic schists and the basic rocks formed with primordial rocks of the same age and that these late rocks have been the result of two or three to an enormous extent for it is nearly possible

cept the small areas of alluvial material. The total area of alluvial material is estimated to be about 10 per cent of the total area of the basin. The remaining 90 per cent is composed of rocks of this nature as equal to that of Spain, France, Italy, part of Germany and the British Islands, etc. This region has not been carefully explored, but from the excellent testimony of travelers, the granitic area is very large. Thus, on Eschweg gives a detailed section of these rocks, traveling from Rio de Janeiro for 60 geographical miles in land in straight line and traveled for 10 miles in another direction, and saw nothing but granitic rocks. Numerous specimens collected along the whole coast from Rio de Janeiro to the mouth of the Plata, a distance of 1100 geographical miles, were examined by me and the alluvial material in the inland also the whole north bank of the Plata I saw besides modern terraced beds, only one small patch of slightly metamorphosed rock, which also could be formed a part of the original capping of the granitic series. Turning to the whole region, namely to the United States and Canada, as shown in Professor H. D. Rogers' beautiful map, I have estimated the areas by cutting out and weighing the paper and find that the metamorphic (excluding the semi-metamorphic) and granitic rocks cover in the proportion of 19 to 1 the whole of the North American continent. In many regions the metamorphic and granitic rocks would be found much more widely distributed than they appear to be if all the sedimentary beds were removed which rest unconformably on them and which could not have formed part of the original mantle and which they were crystallized. Hence it is probable that in some parts of the whole continent there has been completely denuded with not a wreck left behind.

Our remark is here with passing notice. During periods of levitation the area of the

carboniferous strata of North America but now land shells have been found in the lias In regard to mammiferous remains a glance at the historical table published in *Yell's Manual* will bring home the truth how accidental and rare is their preservation far better than pages of detail Nor is their rarity surprising when we remember how large a proportion of the bones of tertiary mammal have been discovered either in caves or in lacustrine deposits and that not a cave or true lacustrine bed is known belonging to the age of our secondary or palæozoic formation

But the imperfection in the geological record largely results from another and more important cause than any of the foregoing namely from the several formations being separated from each other by wide intervals of time This doctrine has been emphatically admitted by many geologists and palæontologists who like L. Forbes entirely disbelieve in the change of species When we see the formations tabulated in written works or when we follow them in nature it is difficult to avoid believing that they are closely consecutive But we know for instance from Sir R. Murchison's great work on Russia what wide gaps there are in that country between the superimposed formations so it is in North America and in many other parts of the world The most skilful geologist if his attention had been confined exclusively to these large territories would never have suspected that during the periods which were blank and barren in his own country great piles of sediment, charged with new and peculiar forms of life had elsewhere been accumulated And if in each separate territory hardly any idea can be formed of the length of time which has elapsed between the consecutive formations we may infer that this could nowhere be ascertained The frequent and great changes in the mineralogical composition of consecutive formations generally implying great changes in the geography of the surrounding lands, whence the sediment was derived accord with the belief of vast intervals of time having elapsed between each formation

We can I think see why the geological formations of each region are almost invariably intermittent that is, have not followed each other in close sequence Scarcely any fact struck me more when examining many hundred miles of the South American coasts, which have been upraised several hundred feet within the recent period than the absence of any

recent deposits sufficiently extensive to last for even a short geological period Along the whole west coast which is inhabited by a peculiar marine fauna tertiary beds are so poorly developed that no record of several successive and peculiar marine faunas will probably be preserved to a distant age A little reflection will explain why along the ring coast of the western side of South America no extensive formations with recent or tertiary remains can anywhere be found though the supply of sediment must for ages have been great, from the enormous degradation of the coast rocks and from muddy streams entering the sea The explanation no doubt is that the littoral and sub littoral deposits are continually worn away as soon as they are brought up by the slow and gradual rising of the land within the grinding

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or extensive masses in order to withstand the incessant action of the waves when first upraised and during successive oscillations of level as well as the subsequent subaerial degradation Such thick and extensive accumulations of sediment may be formed in two ways either in profound depths of the sea, in which case the bottom will not be inhabited by so many and such varied forms of life as the more shallow seas and the mass when upraised will give an imperfect record of the organisms which existed in the neighbourhood during the period of its accumulation Or sediment may be deposited to any thickness and extent over a shallow bottom if it continues slowly to subside In this latter case as long as the rate of subsidence and the supply of sediment nearly balance each other the sea will remain shallow and favourable for many and varied forms and thus a rich fossiliferous formation thick enough when upraised to resist a large amount of denudation may be formed

I am convinced that nearly all our ancient

how to see I watched the progress of geology and have been surprised to note how antediluvian or after antediluvian in treating of this or that great formation has come to the conclusion that it was accumulated during subsidence I may add that the only ancient tertiary formation on the west coast of South America which has been thick enough to resist such degradation as it has yet

of the glacial period, instead of having been really far greater than is, tend *g* from before the glacial epoch to the present day.

In order to get perfect gradation between two forms in the upper and lower parts of the same formation, the deposit must have gone on continually accumulating during long periods sufficient for the slow process of modification.

upright as they grew of many giant reeds of time and changing slowly during the process of deposition, which would not have been suspected had the trees been preserved thus. Scott and Dr Dawson found carboniferous beds 1400 feet thick in Nova Scotia, with ancient root-bearing strata, on about the same level less than sixty feet different.

approximately the same which is necessary that the same marine species may live in the same space, the supply of sediment must nearly counterbalance the amount of subsidence. But this same movement of subsidence will tend to bring the area where the sediment is derived and thus diminish the supply whilst the downward movement continues. In fact, this exact balancing between the supply of sediment and the amount of subsidence is probably rare excepting only for that has been observed by more than one paleontologist, that very thick deposits are usually barren of marine remains, except near their peripheral limits.

It would seem that each separate formation, like the whole series of formations in any country has generally been intermittent in its accumulation. When we see as is so often the case a formation composed of beds of widely different mineralogical composition, we may reasonably suspect that the process of deposition has been more less interrupted. In all the closest section of a formation given us an idea of the length of time which its deposition may have consumed. Many instances could be given of beds only a few feet in thickness, representing formations, which are everywhere thousands of feet thickness, and which must have required an enormous time for their accumulation. It is no wonder if this fact would have been suspected the outcrop of the representative thin layer formation. Many cases could be given of the lower part of a formation having been partially denuded and merged, and then recovered to the present level of the same formation, — facts which have not hitherto been noticed. For instance, has occurred in accumulation in the same way as the plainest demonstration given to fossilised trees, the transition

same spot during the whole period of deposition, but has disappeared and reappeared perhaps many times, during the same geological period. Consequently if it were to undergo a considerable amount of modification during the deposition of any one geological formation on a section would not include all the finer intermediate gradations which must on our theory have existed, but abrupt, though perhaps

reference between any two forms, they rank both as species, unless they are enabled to connect them together by the closest intermediate gradations and thus, from the reasons just assigned, we can seldom hope to effect in any

truly intermediate between B and C it would simply be ranked as third and distinct species, unless the same time it could be closely connected by intermediate types with the both forms. Now how could it be forgotten, as before explained that A might be the actual progenitor of B and C and the two could not necessarily be truly intermediate between them in all respects. So that we might obtain the parent species, and these serially modified descendants from the same and perhaps beds of the same formation, and less we obtained numerous transitional gradations, we should not recognise their blood relationship and should consequently rank them as distinct species.

It is notorious on what excessively limited differences many paleontologists have found their species and thus thus they are ready if the specimens come from different strata of the same formation. Some experienced conclusions are now sinking many of

land and of the adjoining shoal parts of the sea will be increased and new stations will often be formed—all circumstances favourable as previously explained for the formation of new varieties and species but during such period there will generally be a blank in the geological record. On the other hand during subsidence the inhabited area and number of inhabitants will decrease (excepting on the shore of a continent when first broken up into an archipelago) and consequently during subsidence though there will be much extinction few new varieties or species will be formed and it is during these very periods of subsidence that the deposits which are richest in fossils have been accumulated.

On the Absence of Numerous Intermediate Varieties in any Single Formation

From these several considerations it cannot be doubted that the geological record viewed as a whole is extremely imperfect but if we confine our attention to any one formation it becomes much more difficult to understand why we do not therein find closely graduated varieties between the allied species which lived at its commencement and at its close. Several cases are on record of the same species presenting varieties in the upper and lower parts of the same formation thus Frautschold gives a number of instances with ammonites and Hilgendorf has described a most curious case of ten graduated forms of *Tanorbis multiformis* in the successive beds of a fresh water formation in Switzerland. Although each formation has indisputably required a vast number of years for its deposition several reasons can be given why each should not commonly include a graduated series of links between the species which lived at its commencement and close but I cannot assign due proportional weight to the following considerations.

Although each formation may mark a very long lapse of years each probably is short compared with the period requisite to change one species into another. I am aware that the paleontologists whose opinions are worthy of much deference namely Brün and Woodward have concluded that the average duration of each formation is twice or thrice as long as the average duration of species form. But insuperable difficulties as it seems to me prevent us from coming to any just conclusion on this head. When we see a species first appearing in the middle of any formation it would be rash in the extreme to infer that it had not

elsewhere previously existed. So again when we find a species disappearing before the last layers have been deposited it would be equally rash to suppose that it then became extinct. We forget how small the area of Europe is compared with the rest of the world nor have the several stages of the same formation throughout Europe been correlated with perfect accuracy.

We may safely infer that with marine animals of all kinds there has been a large amount of migration due to climatal and other causes and when we see a species first appearing in any formation the probability is that it either then first immigrated into that area. It is well known for instance that several species appear somewhat earlier in the palæozoic beds of North America than in those of Europe time having apparently been required for their migration from the American to the European sea. In examining the latest deposits in various quarters of the world it has everywhere been noted that some few still existing species are common in the deposit but have become extinct in the immediately surrounding sea or conversely that some are now abundant in the neighbouring sea but are rare or absent in this particular deposit. It is an excellent lesson to reflect on the uncertain amount of migration of the inhabitants of Europe during the

of climatal and on the great lapse of time all included within this same glacial period. Yet it may be doubted whether in any quarter of the world sedimentary deposits including fossil remains have gone on accumulating within the same area during the whole of this period. It is not for instance probable that sediment was deposited during the whole of the glacial period near the mouth of the Mississippi within that limit of depth at which marine animals could flourish. We know that great geological changes occurred in other parts of America during this space of time. Within such beds as were deposited in shallow water near the mouth of the Mississippi during some part of the glacial period all have been upraised organic remains will probably first appear and disappear at different levels owing to the migrations of species and to geographical changes. And in the latter future geologist examining these beds will be tempted to conclude that the average duration of life of the individual fossils had increased as that of

tion of the geological record under an imaginary illustration. The Malay Archipelago is about the size of Europe from the North Cape to the Mediterranean, and from Britain to Russia and therefore contains all the geological formations which have been examined with any accuracy excepting those of the United States of America. I fully agree with Mr. Godwin Smith, that the present coast line of the Malay Archipelago with its numerous large islands separated by wide and shallow seas, probably represents the former state of Europe whilst most of the formations were accumulated. The Malay Archipelago is one of the richest regions in regard to the number of all the species were to be collected which have existed there have imperfectly recorded the represent the natural history of the world.

But have every reason to believe that the terrestrial productions of the archipelago could be preserved in a very imperfect manner in the formations which we suppose to be there accumulating. Not many of the

any of the great periods of subsidence over the whole or part of the archipelago, together with a comparatively small accumulation of sediment would record the gradual nature of the same specific forms and these conditions are indispensable for the preservation of all the transitional gradations between any two or more species. If such gradations were not all fully preserved, transitional varieties would merely appear as so many new though loosely allied species. It is also probable that each great period of subsidence would be interrupted by oscillations of level, and that slight climatal changes would intervene during such lengthy periods and in these cases the inhabitants of the archipelago would migrate and no closely consecutive record of their modifications could be preserved in any formation.

to the belief that it would be chiefly these few ranging species, though only some of them which would often produce new varieties and the varieties would first be local and

sediment did not accumulate in the bed of the sea, where it did not accumulate at a sufficient rate to protect organic bodies from decay no remains could be preserved.

Formations rich in fossils of many kinds, and of the highest fidelity to last to an age as distant in time as the secondary formations lie in the past, would gradually be formed in the archipelago by a long period of subsidence. These periods of subsidence would be separated from each other by numerous intervals of time during which the area would be either stationary rising whilst rising, the fossiliferous formations on the terrace shores would be destroyed, almost as soon as accumulated, by the incessant coast action, as now seen on the shores of South America. Even throughout the times of shallow seas

in the archipelago, sedimentary beds could hardly be accumulated of great thickness during the period of elevation, become capped and protected by subsequent deposits, so as to have a sufficient distance from the sea to escape future destruction. During the periods of subsidence there could probably be much extinction of life during the periods of elevation, there could be much migration of the geological record could then be less perfect.

It may be doubted whether the distribution of

differs from the former state in a nearly uniform hope of extremely slight degrees and as they would be found imbedded in slightly different beds, with the same formation, they would according to the principles followed by many palaeontologists, be ranked as new and distinct species.

If then the real basis of truth in these remarks, we have no right to expect to find in geological formations, an infinite number of those transitional forms which our theory have connected all the past and present species of the same group into one long and branching chain of life. We ought only to look for a few links, and such assuredly we do find—some more distinctly some more loosely related to each other and these links let them be so loose if different stages of the same formation, would by many palaeontologists, be ranked as distinct species. But I do not pretend that I should ever have expected how poor was the record in the best preserved geological sections, had not the absence of any reliable transitional links between the species which I led at the com-

the very fine species of D Origny and others into the rank of varieties and on this view we do find the kind of evidence of change which on the theory we ought to find. Look again at the later tertiary deposits which include many shells believed by the majority of naturalists to be identical with existing species but some excellent naturalists as Agassiz and Pictet maintain that all the tertiary species are specifically distinct though the distinction is admitted to be very slight so that here unless we believe that these eminent naturalists have been misled by their imaginations and that these late tertiary species really present no difference whatever from their living representatives or unless we admit in opposition to the judgment of most naturalists that the tertiary species are all truly distinct from the recent we have evidence of the frequent occurrence of slight modifications of the kind required. If we look to rather wider intervals of time namely to distinct but consecutive stages of the same great formation we find that the embedded fossils though universally ranked as specifically different yet are far more closely related to each other than are the species found in more widely separated formations so that here again we have undoubted evidence of change in the direction required by the theory but to this latter subject I shall return in the following chapter.

With animals and plants that propagate rapidly and do not wander much there is reason to suspect as we have formerly seen that their varieties are generally at first local and that such local varieties do not preponderate widely and upplant their parent forms until they have been modified and perfected in some considerable degree. According to this view the chance of discovering in a formation in any one country all the intervening stages of transition between any two forms is small for the successive changes are supposed to have been local or confined to some one spot. Most marine animals have a wide range and we have seen that with plants it is those which have the widest range that often stand preeminent varieties so that, with shells and other marine animals, it is probable that those which had the widest range far exceeding the limit of the known geological formations in Europe have oftenest given rise first to local varieties and ultimately to new species and thus again would greatly lessen the chance of our being able to trace the stages of transition in any one geological formation.

It is a more important consideration leading to the same result as lately mentioned by Dr Falconer namely that the period during which each species underwent modification though long as measured by years was probably short in comparison with that during which it remained without undergoing any change.

It should not be forgotten that at the present day with perfect specimens for examination two forms can seldom be connected by intermediate varieties and thus proved to be the same species until many specimens are collected from many places and with fossil species this can rarely be done. We shall perhaps best perceive the improbability of our being enabled to connect species by numerous fine intermediate fossil links by asking ourselves whether for instance geologists at some future period will be able to prove that our different breeds of cattle sheep horses and deer are descended from a single stock or from several

distinct species from their European representatives and by other conchologists as only varieties are really varieties or are as it is called specifically distinct. This could be effected by the future geologist only by his discovering in a fossil state numerous intermediate gradations and such success is improbable in the highest degree.

It has been asserted over and over again by writers who believe in the immutability of species that geology yields no linking forms. This is certainly erroneous. As Sir J Lubbock has remarked every species is a link between other allied forms. If we take a genus having a score of species, recent and extinct and destroy four fifths of them no one would say that the remainder will stand much more distinct from each other. If the extreme

research has not revealed is the former existence of infinitely numerous gradations as fine as existing varieties connecting together nearly all existing and extinct species. But this ought not to be expected yet this has been repeatedly advanced as a most serious objection against my view.

It may be worth while to sum up the foregoing remarks on the causes of the imperfect

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 b y n d t s c o n f i c n d l o g y p l a y l d
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 n g g p e c i s t h g h o n l y s o m e o f t h e m
 w h h w l d s t e n t p r o d n e w v a r t s

of the sea, wh it d d n t a c m l t e t a
 f f i t t e t o p r o t e c t g b o d e s f r m
 d c a v m a i n s c o l d b p r v d
 F m a t n s r i c h f l f m a n y k i n d s
 a n d f t h k n s s f f i c i t t o l a s t o a n g a s
 d u s t a n t f t i y a s t l e c d a r y f m a t i o n a l
 i n t h p a s t, w l d g a l l y b e f o r m e d
 i n t h a c l p e l g l y d r i g p r o d f b
 w l c e. T h s e p o d f b d l d b
 s e p a r a t e d f r o m c h t h e b y m m t r

p l a n t t h p e n t f m W h e n u c h v a r t
 r t r a d t o t h e t h o m e a s t h e y w o l d
 d f f r f o m t l f m r s t a t e a n a l y u n
 f m t l g l p e b p s t e m l y l i g h t d e g r e e
 a n d a s t h y w u l d b e f o d m b d d e d i n
 l i g h t l y d i f f e r e n t b s t a g f t h m f m a
 t u n t h e y w l d c d g t o t h p p l s
 f l l d b y m y p l a c o n l g i s t s b e a s k e d
 a s n e w d d s t c t s p e s

I f t h t l b e s m d g e o f t r u t h i n
 t h e s e r e m r k s w h a e r i g h t t p e c t o
 f i n d n u g e o l c a l f r m t s, a n f i t
 n m b f t i f i t a s t n l f m w h i c h
 u r t h e o r y h o n n c t e d a l l t h p t a n d
 p r e s e t p e c e s f t l s a m e g o u p i n t o e
 l g a n d b l g h u f l i f W o g l t
 n l y t o l o o k f f w l k s a n l u c h a s s e d l y
 w d f i d—s o m m d t n t l y s o m e m
 l s e l y l t e d t o a c h t h a n d t h e l k
 l e t t h m b s o l s e i f f o u n d d f f t
 t a g e s f t h m f m t w l d b y m a n y

w l d b d t y e d a l m t a s s o o a s a c c u m u
 l a t i d b y t h s s a n t c o a s t a c t a s w w
 a c c t h a h r e f S o t h A m c a. E e n
 t h r o g h t l e t e n s e a n d h a l l w s e a s
 t h t l a r c h p e l g s e d m t a r y b e d c o l d
 h a r d l y b e a c c u m l t e d f g r e a t t h c k s s d
 u n g t l p e r i o d f l t o n b e c m c p p d
 a n d p t e c t e d l y b s e q t d p o t s, s o a s t o
 h a g o o d l c e f d u r i g t o y d s t a n t f t
 t a n t f t D g t h p o d s f b i d e n c e,
 t h r e l d p r o b a b l y b e m c h e x t i c t f
 l d d u n g t l p o d f l t n t h
 l d b m l a r t u o b t h g e o l o g i c a l
 r e c o r d i t t b e l e s s p e r f e c t.

I t m a y b e d b t e d w h t h t h d t i o f

p e s e c d g e o l g a l c t s, h a d n t t i e a b
 s e c e f m b l t a n t l l i n k s b e
 t e e n t h e p e c l c h l e d t t h c o m

the very fine species of D Orbiguy and others into the rank of varieties and on this view we do find the kind of evidence of change which on the theory we ought to find. Look again at the later tertiary deposits which include many shells believed by the majority of naturalists to be identical with existing species but some excellent naturalists as Agassiz and Lartet maintain that all the tertiary species are specifically distinct though the distinction is admitted to be very slight so that here unless we believe that these eminent naturalists have been misled by their imagination and that these late tertiary species really present no difference whatever from their living representatives or unless we admit in opposition to the judgment of most naturalists that the tertiary species are all truly distinct from the recent we have evidence of the frequent occurrence of slight modifications of the kind required. If we look to rather wider intervals of time namely to distinct but consecutive stages of the same great formation we find that the embedded fossils though universally ranked as specifically different, yet are far more closely related to each other than are the species found in more widely separated formations so that here again we have undoubted evidence of change in the direction required by the theory but to this latter subject I shall return in the following chapter.

With animals and plants that propagate rapidly and do not wander much there is reason to suspect as we have formerly seen that their varieties are generally at first local and that such local varieties do not pread widely and supplant their parent forms until they have been modified and perfected in some considerable degree. According to this view the chance of discovering in a formation in any one country all the early stages of transition between any two forms is small for the successive changes are supposed to have been local or confined to some one spot. Most marine animals have a wide range and we have seen that with plants it is the case which have the widest range that oftenest present varieties so that with shell and other marine animals, it is probable that those which had the widest range far exceeding the limits of the known geological formation in Europe have oftenest given rise first to local varieties and ultimately to new species and thus we should greatly lessen the chance of our being able to trace the stages of transition in any geological formation.

It is a more important consideration leading to the same result, as lately insisted on by Dr Huxley namely that the period during which each species underwent modification, though long as measured by years, was probably short in comparison with that during which it remained without undergoing any change.

It should not be forgotten that at the present day with perfect specimens for examination two forms can seldom be connected by intermediate varieties and thus proved to be the same species until many specimens are collected from many places and with fossil species this can rarely be done. We shall perhaps best perceive the improbability of our being enabled to connect species by numerous fine intermediate fossil links by asking ourselves whether for many geological times future period will be able to prove that our different breeds of cattle sheep horses and deer descended from a single stock or from several

distinct species from their European representative and by other conclusions as only varieties are really varieties or are as it is called specifically distinct. This could be effected by the future geologist only by his discovering in a fossil state numerous intermediate gradations and such success is improbable in the highest degree.

It has been asserted over and over again by writers who believe in the immutability of species that geology yields no linking forms. This assertion as we shall see in the next chapter is certainly erroneous. As Sir J Lubbock has remarked Every species is a link between other allied forms. If we take a genus having a score of species, recent and extinct and destroy four fifths of them no one doubts that the remainder will stand much more distinct from each other. If the extreme

research has not revealed the former existence of infinitesimal gradations, as fine as existing varieties, connecting together nearly all existing and extinct species. But this ought not to be expected yet this has been repeatedly advanced as a not serious objection to my view.

It is well worth while to sum up the foregoing remarks on the causes of the imperfect

landified during the deposition of the upper greensand and still more recently that strange bird, the Archaeopteryx, with long lizard like tail bearing a pair of feathers on each joint, and with its wings furnished with two free claws, has been discovered in the oolitic slates of Solenhofen. Hardly any recent discovery shows more forcibly than this, how little we as yet know of the former inhabitants of this world.

I may give another instance which, from the time it passed undisturbed, has much struck me. In memoir *On Fossil Sauriles* (Currier), I stated that, from the large number of extinct and extinct tertiary species from the

extraordinary abundance of the individuals of many species all over the world, from the Arctic regions to the equatorial inhabiting various zones of depths from the upper tidal limits to 6 fathoms from the perfect manner in

which specimens are preserved in the oldest tertiary beds from the case with which even a fragment of an alga can be recognised from all these circumstances, I inferred that, had some corals existed during the secondary periods, they would certainly have been preserved and discovered and as not one species had then been discovered in beds of this age, I

concluded that this great group had been suddenly developed at the commencement of the tertiary series. This was some trouble to me, adding as I then thought of more instances of the abrupt appearance of great groups of species. But my work had hardly been published, when the skillful paleontologist, M. Bosquet, sent me drawings of perfect specimens of an unmistakable sessile corals which he had himself extracted from the chalk of Belgium. And as if to make the case as striking as possible, this corals was *Cyathophylus*,

very common, large and ubiquitous genus, of which not one species has as yet been found even in a tertiary stratum. Still more recently I remember, a member of distinct subfamily of sessile corals, has been discovered by M. Wood and in the upper chalk so that now the abundant absence of the existence of this group of animals during the secondary period.

The case most frequently insisted on by paleontologists of the apparent sudden appearance of some groups of species, is that of the Australian fishes, how down, according to Lyell, in the Chalk period. This group includes the large majority of existing species. But certain Jurassic and Triassic forms are not commonly admitted to be teleostean and

even some palaeozoic forms have thus been classed by osteichthyanites. If the teleosteans had really appeared suddenly in the northern hemisphere at the commencement of the chalk formation the fact would have been highly remarkable but it would not have formed an insuperable difficulty unless it could likewise have been shown that at the same period the species were added and simultaneously developed in other quarters of the world. It is almost superfluous to remark that hardly any fossil fish are known from south of the equator and by running through Pictet's *Palaeontology* it will be seen that only few species are known from several formations in Europe. Some few families of fish now have a confined range, the teleostean fishes might formerly have had a similarly confined range and after having been largely developed in some one sea, have gradually spread widely over the whole world. It is not possible that the seas of the world have always been so freely open from south to north as they are at present. Even at this day if the Malay Archipelago were converted into land, the tropical parts of the Indian Ocean would form a large and perfectly enclosed basin, in which any great group of marine animals might be multiplied and here they would remain confined, until some of the species became adapted to cool climates and were enabled to double the southern cape of Africa or Australia, and thus reach the far distant seas.

From these considerations, from our ignorance of the geology of the countries beyond the confines of Europe and the United States, and from the results too in our palaeontological knowledge collected by the discoveries of the last dozen years, it seems to me to be about as rash to draw any inference as to the succession of organic forms throughout the world, as it would be for a naturalist to land for five minutes at a barren point in Australia, and then to discuss the number and range of its productions.

On the sudden appearance of Groups of allied Species in the latest known Fossiliferous Strata

There is another and allied difficulty which is much more serious. I allude to the manner in which species belonging to several of the main divisions of the animal kingdom suddenly appear in the latest known fossiliferous rocks. Most of the arguments which have been urged in that all the existing species of the same group are descended from a single progenitor

commencement and close of each formation pressed so hardly on my theory

*On the sudden appearance of whole
Groups of allied Species*

The abrupt manner in which whole groups of species suddenly appear in certain formations has been urged by several palæontologists—for instance by Agassiz, Pictet and Sedgwick—as a fatal objection to the belief in the transmutation of species. If numerous species belonging to the same genera or families have really started into life at once the fact would be fatal to the theory of evolution through natural selection. To

excellent review of this work in commenting on early transitional forms, and taking birds as an illustration cannot see how the successive modifications of the anterior limbs of

imagine the perfection of the geological record and falsely infer because certain genera or families have not been found beneath a certain stage that they did not exist before that stage. In all cases positive palæontological evidence may be implicitly trusted; negative evidence is worthless as experience has so often shown. We continually forget how large the world is compared with the area over which our geological formations have been carefully examined; we forget that groups of species may elsewhere have long existed and have slowly multiplied before they invaded the ancient archipelagoes of Europe and the United States. We do not make due allowance for the intervals of time which have elapsed between our consecutive formations—longer perhaps in many cases than the time required for the accumulation of each formation. These intervals will have given time for the multiplication of species from some one parent form; and in the succeeding formation such groups or species will appear as if suddenly created.

I may here recall a remark formerly made namely that it might require a long succession

forms would often long remain confined to some one region but that when thus a adaptation had once been effected and a few species

throughout the world. I refer to Pictet, in his

on many kinds I do not see how they could face of the sea like the logger-headed duck and ultimately to rise from its surface and glide through the air?

I will now give a few examples to illustrate the foregoing remarks and to show how liable we are to error in supposing that whole groups of species have suddenly been produced. Even in so short an interval as that between the first and second editions of Pictet's great work on *Palæontology* published in 1844-46 and in 1853-57 the conclusions on the first appearance and disappearance of several groups of animals have been considerably modified and a third edition would require still further changes. I may recall the well known fact that in geological treatises, published not many years ago mammals were always spoken of as having abruptly come in at the commencement of the tertiary series. And now one of the richest known accumulations of fossil mammals belongs to the middle of the secondary series and true mammals have been discovered in the new red sandstone at nearly the commencement of this great series. Cuvier used to urge that no monkey occurred in any tertiary stratum but now extinct species have been discovered in India.

the new red sandstone of the United States, who would have ventured to suppose that no less than at least thirty different bird-like animal some of gigantic size existed during that period. Not a fragment of bone has been discovered in these beds. Not long ago palæontologists maintained that the whole class of birds came suddenly into existence during the tertiary period but now we know the antiquity of the fossil bird. It is a fine

found during the deposition of the upper greensand and till more recently that strange bird, the Archaeopteryx with a lizard-like tail, bearing a pair of feathers on each joint, and with its wings furnished with two free claws, has been discovered in the oolitic slate of Solenhofen. Hardly any recent discovery was more really than this, however little we as yet know of the former inhabitants of the world.

I may grant in the instance which, from having passed under my own eyes, has much struck me. In a memoir of Fossil Fishes of the Cretaceous I stated that, from the large number of existing and extinct tertiary species from the extraordinary abundance of the individuals of many species all the world, from the Arctic regions to the equatorial inhabiting various zones of depths from the perfect limit to the depths from the perfect limit in which specimens are preserved in the latest tertiary beds from the same thickness, and a fragment of all can be recognised from all these circumstances, I inferred that, had sessile corals existed during the secondary periods, they would certainly have been preserved and discovered and as other species had then been discovered in beds of this age I concluded that this great group had been developed to the commencement of the tertiary series. Thus as soon as I thought of the abrupt appearance of the great group of peccaries. But in which had hardly been possible, while I was still a paleontologist, M. Boscquet, setting me down as a perfect specimen of an unmistakably sessile corals, which he had himself extracted from the chalk of Bithynia. And, as if to make the case as striking as possible, this corals as Chathamius.

very common, large and ubiquitous group, of which the species has as yet been found in an tertiary stratum. Still more recently I remarked, in the case of distinct subfamily of sessile corals, has been discovered by M. Woodward in the same chalk so that now it is abundant evidence of the existence of this group of animals during the secondary period.

This case must frequently illustrated by

in some palaeozoic forms have thus been classed by the authorities. If the teleostean had really appeared suddenly in the tertiary it must be the commencement of the chalk formation the fact would have been highly remarkable but it would not have formed an insuperable difficulty unless it could likewise have been shown that the same period the species were suddenly and simultaneously developed in other quarters of the world. It is almost possible for us to remark that hardly any fossil fish are known from so late of the equator and by running through Prof. Pictet's *Palaeontology* it will be seen that every species are known from several formations in Europe. Some few families of fish now have a confined range, the teleostean fishes in the tertiary have had a similarly confined range and although having been largely developed in some seas, have spread widely elsewhere. Any right to suppose that the seas of the world have always been so freely peopled from so late in the tertiary are not present. Even the tertiary if the Malay Archipelago were converted into land the tropical parts of the Indian Ocean would form a large and perfectly enclosed basin in which any great group of marine animals might be multiplied and here they would remain confined until some of the species became adapted to cool climates and were enabled to double the South Cape of Africa, Australia, and thus reach the remote seas.

From these considerations, from our ignorance of the geology of the countries beyond the confines of Europe and the United States, and from the results in our paleontological knowledge effected by the discovery of the last dinosaurs, it seems to me to be almost as rash to dogmatize in the absence of organic forms through out the world as it would be for a naturalist to land a specimen in a barren point in Australia, and then to discuss the number and range of its productions.

On the sudden appearance of Groups of allied Species in the lower tertiary Fossiliferous Strata

There is an then and allied difficulty which is much more serious. I allude to the manner in which species belonging to several of the most diverse of the animal kingdom suddenly appear in the lower tertiary fossiliferous rocks. Most of the arguments which have been urged in that all the tertiary species of the same group are descended from a single progenitor

includes the latter majority of the species. But certain Jurassic and Triassic forms are now commonly admitted to be teleostean and

apply with equal force to the earliest known species. For instance it cannot be doubted that all the Cambrian and Silurian trilobites are descended from some one crustacean which must have lived long before the Cambrian age and which probably differed greatly from any known animal. Some of the most ancient animals as the Nautilus, Lingula &c. do not differ much from living species and it cannot on our theory be supposed that these old species were the progenitors of all the species belonging to the same groups which have subsequently appeared for they are not

racter

It is true it is a Cambrian species which has elapsed as long as or probably far longer than the whole interval from the Cambrian age to the present day.

It is here we seem

to ask whether the earth in a fit state for the habitation of living creature has lasted long enough. Sir W. Thompson concludes that the consolidation of the crust can hardly have occurred less than 90 or more than 400 million years ago but probably not less than 98 or more than 900 million years. These very wide limits show how doubtful the data are and other elements may have hereafter to be introduced into the problem. Mr. Croll estimates that about 60 million years have elapsed since the Cambrian period but this judging from the small amount of organic change since the commencement of the Glacial epoch appears a very short time for the many and great mutations of life which have certainly occurred since the Cambrian formation and the previous 110 million years can hardly be considered as sufficient for the development of the varied forms of life which already existed during the Cambrian period. It is, however, probable as Sir William Thompson insists that the world at a very early period was

but you have tended to induce changes at a corresponding rate in the organisms which then existed.

To the question why we do not find rich fossiliferous deposits belonging to these assumed earliest periods prior to the Cambrian system I can give no satisfactory answer. Several eminent geologists, with Sir R. Murchison at their head were until recently convinced

that we beheld in the organic remains of the lowest Silurian stratum the first dawn of life. Other highly competent judges, as Lyell and E. Forbes have disputed this conclusion. We should not forget that only a small portion of the world is known with accuracy. Not very long ago M. Barrande ad led another and lower stage abounding with new and peculiar species beneath the then known Silurian system and now still lower down in the Lower Cambrian formation Mr. Hicks has found in South Wales beds rich in trilobites, and containing various molluscs and annelids. The presence of phlophatic nodules and bituminous matter even in some of the lowest azoic rocks, probably indicates life at these periods and the existence of the Eozoon in the Laurentian formation of Canada is generally admitted. There are three great series of

series that of all the succeeding rocks, from the base of the palaeozoic series to the present time. We are thus carried back to a period so remote that the appearance of the so-called primordial fauna (of Barrande) may by some be considered as a comparatively modern event. The Eozoon belongs to the most lowly organised of all classes of animal but is highly organised for its class it existed in countless numbers and

in the series, which I wrote in 189 about the existence of living beings long before the Cambrian period and which are almost the same with those since used by Sir W. Logan. I have proved true. Nevertheless, the difficulty of assigning any good reason for the absence of vast piles of strata rich in fossils beneath the Cambrian system is very great. It does not seem probable that the most ancient beds have been quite worn away by denudation or that their fossils have been wholly obliterated by metamorphic action for if this had been the case we should have found only small remnants of the formations next succeeding them in age and these would always have existed in partially metamorphosed condition. But the descriptions which we possess of the Silurian deposits over immense territories in Russia and in North America do not support the view that the older a formation is, the more invariably it has suffered extreme denudation and metamorphism.

The case at present must remain unexplored and may be truly urged as a valid argument against the view here maintained. To show that it may hereafter occur some explanation, I will give the following hypothesis. From the retreat of the organic remains which do not appear to be *inhabited* profound depths, in the several formations of Europe and of the United States and from the amount of sediment, mud in the channels, of which the formations are composed we may infer that from first to last large lands tracts of land, which settled mud was derived occurred in the globehood of the existing continents of Europe and North America. This same was once been maintained by Agassiz and others. But did not know what was the state of things in the interval between the several successive formations, while in Europe and the United States during these intervals was as dry land, as the marine of the arid land which sediment was not deposited, as the bed of an open and unfathomable sea.

Looking at the existing oceans, which are three times as extensive as the land we see them tiled with man-made but hardly truly oceanic islands (the tiny atolls of New Zealand, if this can be called truly oceanic land) as yet known to afford no remnant of any palaeozoic secondary formation. Hence the probability that during the palaeozoic and secondary periods, the continents continued to expand, while the oceans were reduced. Had they existed palaeozoic and secondary formations could all probably have been accumulated from sediment derived from the interior and the new world has been at least partially phagocytosed by the oscillations of the earth, which must have intervened during these unusually long periods. If this may be an thing from these facts, we may infer that the oceans now extended over half the globe from the remotest period of which we have any record and that the large tracts of land have been subjected to great oscillations of level, since the Cambrian period. The Colorado has been appended to the Himalayas, coral reefs, led to the coast that the great oceans are still mainly areas of land, since the great pelagic till areas of the Atlantic, Indian, and the continents areas of the world. It is reasonable to assume that the great oceans are still mainly areas of land.

the beginning of the world. Or continue to seem to have been formed by a preponderance of many oscillations of level, if the force of attraction by the areas of preponderant mountains is claimed in the lapse of time. At a period long antecedent to the Cambrian epoch continents may have existed where oceans are now spread out and oceans may have existed where continents now stand. Nor should we be justified in assuming that the existence of the Pacific Ocean was no concerned in the evolution of the world there find solid

might well happen that the trachylites which had been
sided some miles are to the centre of the
earth and which had been passed on by an
arm weight of perianthment with
might has and of metamorphic
action that trachylites which have always re-
mained at the surface. The new
areas in some parts of the world for instance
in South America, of naked metamorphic
rocks, which might have been hidden under
great pressure, have now seemed to me to
require some special plan to show may
perhaps be that seen in these large
areas, the metamorphism is generally to
the Cambrian period as a complete metamor-
phism and deduced conditions.

These would facilitate the redissolved mainly
—th t, th gh we find n geol gical f
m t n s many links between th spec wh h
n w xist and which f rm l xisted w d
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f rms closely ; m g th m all tog th —th
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tions —th almost entire bsence as t present
kn wn f f rm tions rich in f s ls be ath
th Cambrian trata,—are ll u l btedly of
th most serio nature W see th th
fact th t th most m at palaeo t lo ists,
n m ly Cu er Agassiz, Barrard l t t
Falco E. F rbes, &c., and all t ge test
geol gists, as Ly ll Murchison Sed'w h, &c.

geological record is in any degree perfect, will undoubtedly tend to reject the theory of my

part following out Lyell's metaphor I look at the geological record as a history of the world imperfectly kept and written in a changing dialect of this history we possess the last volume alone relating only to two or three countries. Of this volume only here and there a short chapter has been preserved and of each page only here and there a few lines. Each

word of the slowly-changing language more or less different in the successive chapters, may represent the forms of life which are entombed in our consecutive formations, and which falsely appear to have been abruptly introduced. On this view the difficulties above discussed are greatly diminished or even disappear.

that any form which did not become in some degree modified and improved would be liable to extermination. Hence we see why all the species in the same region do at last, if we look to long enough intervals of time, become modified; for otherwise they would become extinct.

In members of the same class the average amount of change during long and equal periods of time may perhaps be nearly the same, but as the accumulation of enduring formations rich in fossils depends on great masses of sediment being deposited on subsiding areas, our formations have been almost necessarily accumulated at wide and irregularly intermittent intervals of time; consequently the amount of organic change exhibited by the fossils embedded in consecutive formations is not equal. Each formation, on this view, does not mark a new and complete act of creation, but only an occasional one taken almost at hazard in an ever slowly changing drama.

We can clearly understand why a species when once lost should never reappear, even if the very same conditions of life, organic and inorganic, should recur. For though the offspring of one species might be adapted (and no doubt this has occurred in innumerable instances) to fill the place of another species in the economy of nature, and thus supplant it, yet the two forms—the old and the new—would not be identically the same; for both would almost certainly inherit different characters from their distinct progenitors, and organisms already differing would vary in a different manner. For instance, it is possible if all our fabled pigeons were destroyed, that fanciers might make a new breed hardly distinguishable from the present breed; but if the parent rock pigeon were likewise destroyed, and under nature we have every reason to believe that parent forms are generally supplanted and exterminated by their improved offspring, it is incredible that a fantail identical with the existing breed could be raised from any other species of pigeon, or even from any other well established race of the domestic pigeon; for the successive variation would almost certainly be in some degree different, and the newly formed variety would probably inherit from its progenitor some characteristic differences.

Groups of species, that is, genera and families, follow the same general rules in their appearance and disappearance as do single species, changing more or less quickly and in a greater or lesser degree. A group, when it has

once disappeared, never reappears; that is, its existence, as long as it lasts, is continuous. I am aware that there are some apparent exceptions to this rule, but the exceptions are surprisingly few, so few that E. Forbes, Pictet, and Woodward (though all strongly opposed to such views as I maintain) admit its truth, and the rule strictly accords with the theory. For all the species of the same group, however long it may have lasted, are the modified descendants one from the other, and all from a common progenitor. In the genus *Lingula*, for instance, the species which have successively appeared at all ages must have been connected by an unbroken series of generations from the lowest Silurian stratum to the present day.

We have seen in the last chapter that whole groups of species sometimes suddenly appear to have been abruptly developed, and I have attempted to give an explanation of this fact, which if true would be fatal to my views. But such cases are certainly exceptional, the general rule being a gradual increase in number until the group reaches its maximum, and then sooner or later a gradual decrease. If the number of the species included within a genus, or the number of the genera within a family, be represented by a vertical line of varying thickness ascending through the successive geological formations in which the species are found, the line will sometimes falsely appear to begin at its lower end, not in a sharp point, but abruptly, it then gradually thickens upwards, often keeping of equal thickness for a space, and ultimately thins out in the upper beds, marking the decrease and final extinction of the species. This gradual increase in number of the species of a group is strictly conformable with the theory; for the species of the same genus, and the genera of the same family, can increase only slowly and progressively, the process of multiplication and the production of a number of allied forms necessarily being a slow and gradual process—one species first giving rise to two or three varieties, the elements slowly converted into species, which in their turn produce by equally slow steps other varieties and species, and so on, like the branching of a great tree from a single stem, till the group becomes large.

On Extinction

We have as yet only spoken incidentally of the disappearance of species and of groups of species. On the theory of natural selection the extinction of old forms, and the production of

new and improved forms are that have connected together. The extinction of all the inhabitants of the earth has been swept away by catastrophes, the successive periods generally given by those geologists, as Eli de Beaumont, Murchison, Barrande, &c., whose general views would naturally lead them to this conclusion. On the contrary we have every reason to believe, from the study of the tertiary formations, that periods and groups of species gradually disappear after another first from a spot, then from another and finally from the whole. In some few cases however as by the breaking of an isthmus and the consequent interruption of a multitude of new inhabitants into an adjoining sea, by the final subsidence of an island the process of extinction may have been rapid. Both in the case of periods and whole groups of species last few very unequal periods some groups, as we have seen, have descended from the earliest known dawn of life to the present day, some have disappeared before the close of the palaeozoic period. A fixed law seems to determine the length of time during which an animal species or any single genus endures. There is reason to believe that the extinction of whole groups of species is generally a slow process than their production, if their appearance and disappearance be represented as before by a vertical line of any thickness the line is found to taper more gradually to its point, which marks the progress of extermination, than at its lower end which marks its first appearance and the early increase in number of the species. In some cases, however, the termination of whole groups, as I mention, toward the close of the secondary period, has been wonderful.

The function of periods has been in the most gratuitous manner. Some authors have even supposed that, as the individual has a finite length of life, so has a species a finite duration. No one can have marvelled more than I have at the function of periods. When I found in La Plata the tooth of a horse imbedded with the remains of *Mastodon*, *M. palmeri* in *Torodon*, and the extinct monsters, which all co-existed, the still living shells of every last geological period, I was filled with astonishment, seeing that the horse since its introduction by the Spaniards into South America, has run wild over the whole country and has increased in numbers at an unparalleled rate. I asked myself what could so recently have terminated the former

rise and conditions of life apparently so favourable. But my astonishment was groundless. Professor Owen soon perceived that the tooth though so like that of the existing horse, belonged to an extinct species. Had this horse been still living, but to some degree rare, no naturalist would have felt the last surprise at its rarity. It is rare in the tribe of a vast number of species of all classes, in all countries. If we ask ourselves why this that species is rare we answer that some thing is unfavourable in its conditions of life, but what that some thing is we can hardly tell. On the supposition of the fossil horse till existing as a rare species, we might have felt certain, from the analogy of all the mammals, even of the low breeding elephant, and from the history of the naturalisation of the domestic horse in South America, that under more favourable conditions it would in a very few years have stocked the whole continent. But we could not then tell what the unfavourable conditions were which checked its increase, whether some one or several contingencies, and at what period of the horse's life and in what degree they severally acted. If the conditions had gone, however slowly becoming less and less favourable we assuredly should not have perceived the fact, yet the fossil horse would certainly have become rare and rare and finally extinct — its place being seized on by some more successful competitor.

It is most difficult always to remember that the increase of every creature is constantly being checked by unperceived little things and that these same unperceived agencies are simply sufficient to cause rarity and finally extinction. So little is this subject understood that I have often and with surprise repeated pressed the change in numbers as the *Mastodon* and the more ancient dinosaurs are becoming extinct as if more bodily strength gained by in the battle of life. If the size in the contrary would in some cases determine as has been remarked by Owen, quick termination from the great amount of required food. Before man inhabited India Africa some cause must have checked the continued increase of the existing elephant. A highly capable judge, Dr Falconer believed that it is chiefly insects which, from incessantly harassing and weakening the elephant in India, check its increase and this was Bruce's conclusion with respect to the African elephant in Abyssinia. It is certain that insects and blood sucking bats determine the existence of the

larger naturalized quadrupeds in several parts of S America

We see in many cases in the more recent tertiary formations that rarity precedes extinction and we know that this has been the progress of events with those animals which have been exterminated either locally or wholly through man's agency I may repeat what I published in 184 namely that to admit that species generally become rare before they become extinct—to feel no surprise at the rarity of a species and yet to marvel greatly when the species ceases to exist is much the same as to admit that sickness in the individual is the forerunner of death—to feel no surprise at sickness but when the sick man dies to wonder and to suspect that he died by some local violence

The theory of natural selection is grounded on the belief that each new variety and ultimately each new species is produced and maintained by having some advantage over those with which it comes into competition and the consequent extinction of the less favoured forms almost inevitably follows It is the same with our domestic productions when a new and slightly improved variety has been raised it at first supplants the less improved varieties in the same neighbourhood when much improved it is transported far and near like our short horn cattle and takes the place of other breeds in other countries Thus the appearance of new forms and the disappearance of old forms both those naturally and those artificially produced are bound together In flourishing groups the number of new specific forms which have been produced within a given time has at some periods probably been greater than the number of the old specific forms which have been exterminated but we know that species have not gone on indefinitely increasing at least during the later geological epoch so that looking to later times we may believe that the production of new forms has caused the extinction of about the same number of old forms

The competition will generally be most severe as formerly explained and illustrated by example between the forms which are most like each other in all respects If one form is improved and modified less than the others it will generally cause the extermination of the parent species and if many new forms have been developed from any one parent the nearest allies of that parent species will be the most liable to ex-

termination Thus as I believe, a number of new species descended from one species, that is a new genus comes to supplant an old genus, belonging to the same family But it must often have happened that a new species belonging to some one group has seized on the place occupied by a species belonging to a distinct group and thus have caused its extermination If many allied forms be developed from the successful intruder many will have to yield their places and it will generally be the allied forms which will suffer from some inherited inferiority in common But whether it be species belonging to the same or to a distinct class which have yielded their places to other modified and improved species, a few of the sufferers may often be preserved for a long time from being fitted to some peculiar line of life or from inhabiting some distant and isolated station where they will have escaped severe competition For instance some species of *Trigona* a great genus of shells in the secondary formations survive in the Andes

A group is generally as we have seen a slower process than its production

With respect to the apparently sudden extermination of whole families or orders as of trilobites at the close of the palaeozoic period and of ammonites at the close of the secondary period we must remember what has been already said

slow extermination Moreover when by sudden immigration or by unusually rapid development many species of a new group have taken possession of an area in which the older forms were common, the new species will commonly be allied for they will partake of the same inferiority in common

Thus as it seems to me the manner in which single species and whole groups of species become extinct accord well with the theory of natural selection We need not marvel at extinction if we must marvel that it be at once complete in imagining that it is that we see for the first time many complex beings on which the existence of each species depends If we look for an instant at each species tend to increase indefinitely and that some check is always in action yet

eldom perceived by us, the whole economy of nature will be still obscured. When we can precisely say why this species is more abundant in individuals than that why this species and not another can be naturalised in a given country then, and not until then, we may justly feel surprise why we cannot account for the extinction of any particular species or group of species.

On the Forms of Life changing almost simultaneously throughout the World

Scarcely any palaeontological discovery is more striking than the fact that the forms of life change almost simultaneously throughout the world. Thus our European Chalk formation can be recognised in many distant regions, under the most different climates, where not a fragment of the mineral chalk itself can be found, namely in North America, in equatorial South America, in Tierra del Fuego, at the Cape of Good Hope and in the peninsula of India. For at these distant points, the organic remains in certain beds present an unmistakable resemblance to those of the Chalk. It is not that the same species are met with for in some cases not a species is identically the same, but they belong to the same families, genera, and sections of genera, and sometimes are similar characters in such trifling points as in the superficial sculpture of the

their geological position, so one would have suspected that they had co-existed with each other till being brought as these anomalous

states.

When the marine forms of life are spoken of as having changed simultaneously throughout the world it must not be supposed that this expression relates to the same year or to the same century, or that it has a very strict

resembled most closely those of the so-called northern hemisphere. So, again, several highly competent observers maintain that the existing productions of the United States are more closely related to those which lived in Europe during certain late tertiary ages, than to the present inhabitants of Europe and if this be so, it is evident that fossiliferous beds deposited on the shores of North America would hereafter be liable to be classed with somewhat older European beds. Nevertheless, looking to the remotest of the epoch, there can be little doubt that all the more modern marine formations, namely the Pliocene, the Pleistocene and strictly modern beds of Europe, North and South America, and Australia, from containing fossil remains in some degree allied, and from not including those forms which are found only in the old and long deposits, would be correctly ranked as simultaneous in geological sense.

The fact of the forms of life changing simultaneously in the above-mentioned distant parts of the world has greatly struck these admirable observers, M. de Verneuil and d'Archiac. After referring to the parallelism of the palaeozoic forms of life in various parts of Europe, they add: "If struck by this transition we turn our attention to North America, and there discover a series of analogous phenomena, it will appear certain that all these modifications of species, their extinction, and the introduction of new ones, cannot be owing to mere changes in marine currents or other causes more or less local and temporary

their forms, which are not found in the Chalk of Europe but which occur in the formations either above or below occur in the same order at these distant points of the world. In the several accessorial palaeozoic formations of Russia, West Europe, and North America, a similar parallelism in the forms of life has been observed by several authors so that, according to Lyell, the European and North American tertiary deposits, even if the few fossil species which are common to the Old and New Worlds are kept wholly out of the general parallelism in the successive forms of life in the palaeozoic and tertiary ages, could still be manifest, and the several formations could be easily correlated.

These observations, however, relate to the marine inhabitants of the world which are not sufficient data to judge both the productions of the land and of fresh water at distant points change the same parallel manner. We may doubt both the latter has been extended if the *M. pakeri* was *Mylodon* *Micromys*, and *Taraxacum* had been brought to Europe from La Plata, without any information in regard to

larger naturalized quadrupeds in several parts of S. America

We see in many cases in the more recent tertiary formations that rarity precedes extinction and we know that this has been the progress of events with those animals which have been exterminated either locally or wholly through man's agency. I may repeat what I published in 1842, namely that to admit that species generally become rare before they become extinct—to feel no surprise at the rarity of a species and yet to marvel greatly when the species ceases to exist is much the same as to admit that sickness in the individual is the forerunner of death—to feel no surprise at sickness but when the sick man dies to wonder and to suspect that he died by some deed of violence.

The theory of natural selection is grounded on the belief that each new variety and ultimately each new species is produced and maintained by having some advantage over those with which it comes into competition and the consequent extinction of the less favoured forms almost inevitably follows. It is the same with our domestic productions when a new and slightly improved variety has been raised it at first supplants the less improved varieties in the same neighbourhood when much improved it is transported far and near like our short horn cattle and takes the place of other breeds in other countries. Thus the appearance of new forms and the disappearance of old form both the naturally and the artificially produced are bound together. In flourishing groups the number of new specific forms which have been produced within a given time has at some periods probably been greater than the number of the old specific forms which have been exterminated but we know that species have not gone on indefinitely increasing at least during the later geological epochs so that looking to later times we may believe that the production of new forms has caused the extinction of about the same number of old forms.

The competition will generally be most severe as formerly explained and illustrated by examples between the forms which are most like each other in all respects. Hence the improved and modified descendants of a species will generally cause the extermination of the parent species and if many new forms have been developed from any one species the nearest allies of that species i.e. the species of the same genus, will be the most liable to ex-

termination. Thus, as I believe a number of new species descended from one species, that is a new genus comes to supplant an old genus belonging to the same family. But it must often have happened that a new species belonging to some one group has seized on the place occupied by a species belonging to a distinct group and thus have caused its extermination. If many allied forms be developed from the successful intruder many will have to yield their places and it will generally be the allied forms, which will suffer from some inherited inferiority in common. But whether it be species belonging to the same or to a distinct class which have yielded their places to other modified and improved forms.

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With respect to the apparently sudden extermination of whole families or order as of trilobites at the close of the palaeozoic period and of ammonites at the close of the secondary period we must remember what has been already

mentioned. Moreover when by sudden immigration or by unusually rapid development many species of a new group have taken possession of an area formerly

occupied by others they will partake of the same inferiority in common.

Thus as it seems to me the manner in which single species and whole groups of species become extinct accords well with the theory of natural selection. We need not marvel at extinction if we must marvel that it be at our own promptings in imagining for a moment that we understand the many complex contingencies on which the existence of each species depends. If we forget for an instant that each species tends to increase indefinitely and that some check is always in action to

very difficult to account for considering the proximity of the two areas,—unless, indeed, it be assumed that an isthmus separated two seas inundated by distinct, but contemporaneous, faunas. Lyell has made similar observations on some of the later tertiary formations. Barrande, also, shows that there is a striking general parallelism in the successive Juran deposits of Bohemia and Scandinavia; nevertheless he finds a surprising amount of difference in the species. If the several formations in these regions have not been deposited during the same exact periods,—formation in one region often corresponding with a blank interval in the other—and if in both regions the species have gone on slowly changing during the accumulation of the several formations, and during the long intervals of time between them, in this case the several formations in the two regions could be arranged in the same order in accordance with the general succession of the forms of life, and the order would safely appear to be strictly parallel nevertheless the species would not be all the same in the apparently corresponding stages in the two regions.

On the Ignorance of Extinct Species to each other and to Living Forms

Let us now look to the mutual affinities of extinct and living species. All fall into a few grand classes and this fact is at once explained on the principle of descent. The more ancient the form, the more as a general rule, it

serves to break down the intervals between existing genera. Currier ranked the ruminants and pachyderms as two of the most distinct orders of mammals but so many fossil links have been disinterred that Owen has had to alter the whole classification, and has placed certain pachyderms in the same sub-order with ruminants for example, he dissolves by gradations the apparently wide interval between the pig and the camel. The Ungulates or hoofed quadrupeds are now divided into the even-toed or odd-toed divisions but the *Mastomys* of S. America connects to a certain extent these two grand divisions. No one will deny that the *Hippopotamus* is an intermediate between the existing horse and certain older ungulates. What a wonderful connecting link in the chain of mammals is the *Tyrannosaurus* from S. America, as the name given to it by Professor Gray expresses, and which cannot be placed in an existing order. The *Sirenia* form a very distinct group of mammals, and one of the most remarkable peculiarities in the existing class, and lamenting the entire absence of hind limbs without a rudiment being left but the extinct *Mastomys* had, according to Professor Flower, an ossified thigh-bone “articulated to a well-defined acetabulum in the pelvis,” and thus makes some approach to ordinary hoofed quadrupeds, to which the *Sirenia* are in other respects allied. The cetaceans or whales are widely different from all other mammals, but the tertiary *Ziphius* and *Megacetus*, which have been placed by some naturalists in an order by themselves, are considered by Professor Huxley to be undoubtedly cetaceans, “and to constitute connecting links with the aquatic carnivora.”

Even the wide interval between birds and reptiles has been shown by the naturalist just quoted to be partially bridged over in the most unexpected manner on the one hand, by the extinct and extinct *Archaeopteryx* and on the other hand, by the *Compsognathus* one of the cynosaurians—that group which includes the most gigantic of all terrestrial reptiles. Turning to the Invertebrata, Barrande asserts, a high authority could not be named, that Lyell has taught that, although palaeozoic animals can certainly be classed under existing groups, yet that at this ancient period the groups were not so distinctly separated from each other as they now are.

Some writers have objected to an extinct species, or group of species, being considered as intermediate between any two living species.

Recognition. That the distinct forms of life help to fill up the intervals between existing genera, families, and orders, is certainly true but this statement has often been ignored or even denied. It may be well to make some remarks on this subject, and to give some instances. If we call our attention either to the living or to the extinct species of the same class, the series is far less perfect than if we combine both into one general system. In the writings of Professor Owen we continually meet with the phraseology of generalized forms, as applied to extinct animals, and in the writings of Agassiz of prophetic or synthetic types and these terms imply that such forms are in fact intermediate or connecting links. Another distinguished palaeontologist, M. G. de Serres, has shown in the most striking manner that many of the fossil mammals discovered by him in Attica

but depend on general laws which govern the whole animal kingdom. M. Barrande has made forcible remarks to precisely the same effect. It is, indeed, quite futile to look to changes of currents, climate, or other physical conditions as the cause of these great mutations in the forms of life throughout the world under the most different climates. We must, as Barrande has remarked, look to some special law. We shall see this more clearly when we treat of the present distribution of organic beings, and find how slight is the relation between the physical conditions of various countries and the nature of their inhabitants.

This great fact of the parallel succession of the forms of life throughout the world is explicable on the theory of natural selection. New species are formed by having some advantage over older forms, and the forms which are already dominant, or have some advantage over the other forms in their own country, give birth to the greatest number of new varieties or incipient species. We have distinct evidence on this head in the plant which are dominant, that is, which are commonest and most widely diffused, producing the greatest number of new varieties. It is also natural that the dominant, varying, and far preëminent species, which have already invaded to a certain extent the territories of other species, should be those which would have the best chance of spreading still further, and of giving rise in new countries to other new varieties and species. The process of diffusion would often be very slow, depending on climatal and geographical changes, on strange accidents, and on the gradual acclimatisation of new species to the various climate through which they might have to pass, but in the course of time the dominant forms would generally succeed in preëminence and would ultimately prevail. The diffusion would, it is probable, be slower with the terrestrial inhabitants of distinct continents than with the marine inhabitants of the continuous sea. We might therefore expect to find, as we do find, a less strict degree of parallelism in the succession of the productions of the land than with those of the sea.

Thus, as it seems to me, the parallel and taken in a large sense simultaneous succession of the same forms of life throughout the world accords well with the principle of new species having been formed by dominant species preëminence, widely and varying the new species thus produced themselves dominant, owing to their having gained some advantage

over their already dominant parents, as well as over other species and again preëminence, varying and producing new forms. The old forms which are beaten and which yield their places to the new and victorious forms, will generally be allied in groups from inheriting some inferiority in common, and therefore as new and improved groups prevail through out the world old groups disappear from the world, and the succession of forms everywhere tends to correspond both in their first appearance and final disappearance.

There is one other remark connected with this subject worth making. I have given my reasons for believing that most of our great formations rich in fossils, were deposited during periods of subsidence, and that blank intervals of vast duration, as far as fossils are concerned, occurred during the periods when the bed of the sea was either stationary or rising, and likewise when sediment was not thrown down quickly enough to embed and preserve organic remains. During these long and blank intervals I suppose that the inhabitants of each region underwent a considerable amount of modification and extinction, and that there was much migration from other parts of the world. As we have reason to believe that large areas are affected by the same movement, it is probable that strictly contemporaneous formations have often been accumulated over very wide spaces in the same quarter of the world, but we are very far from having any right to conclude that this has invariably been the case, and that large areas have invariably been affected by the same movements. When two formations have been deposited in two regions during nearly, but not exactly, the same period, we should find in both, from the causes explained in the foregoing paragraphs, the same general succession in the forms of life, but the species would not exactly correspond, for there will have been a little more time in the one region than in the other for modification, extinction, and immigration.

I suspect that cases of this nature occur in Europe. Mr. Frezic, in his admirable Memoirs on the Eocene deposits of England and

in England with those in France, although he finds in both a curious accordance in the numbers of the species of the same genera, yet the species themselves differ in a manner

then the families which existed at the period marked VI. would certainly have differed from each other by a less number of characters for the would at this early stage of descent have diverged in a less degree from their common progenitor. Thus it comes that ancient and extinct genera are often in a greater or less degree intermediate in character between their modified descendants, or between their collateral relations.

Under nature the process will be far more complicated than is represented in the diagram

expect, except in rare cases, to fill up the wide intervals in the natural system, and thus to unite distinct families or orders. All that we have a right to expect is, that those groups which have, within known geological periods, undergone much modification, should in the kind of modification some slight approach to each other so that the older members should differ less from each other in some of their characters than do the existing members of the same groups and thus by the co-current evidence of our best palaeontologists is frequently the case.

Thus, on the theory of descent with modification, the main facts with respect to the mutual affinities of the extinct forms of life to each other and to living forms, are explained in a satisfactory manner. And they are wholly inexplicable on any other view.

period and undoubtedly is intermediate in character between the preceding and succeeding families. I need give only one instance, namely the manner in which the fossils of the Devonian system, which this system was first discovered were to be recognized by palaeontologists as intermediate in character between those of the Silurian carboniferous, and undoubted Silurian systems. But each fauna is not necessarily exactly intermediate as unequal intervals of time have elapsed between consecutive formations.

It is no real objection to the truth of the statement that the fauna of each period as a whole is nearly intermediate in character between the preceding and succeeding families, that certain genera differ excepting the rule. For instance the species of mastodons and elephants, when arranged by Dr Falconer in two series,—in the first place according to their mutual affinities, and in the second place according to the period of existence,—do not accord in arrangement. The species extreme in character are the oldest or the most recent, not are those which are intermediate in character intermediate in age. But supposing for an instant, in this and other such cases, that

the that forms successively produced necessarily endure for corresponding lengths of time. A very ancient form may occasionally have lasted much longer than a form elsewhere subsequently produced, especially in the case

of the pterosaur when arranged in serial affinity this arrangement would not closely accord with the relative times of their production, and in the case with the order of their disappearance. For the pterosaur is still living and many variations between the rock pterosaur and the carrier become distinct and carriers which are extreme in the important character of length of beak originated earlier than short beaked turtles, which are the opposite end of the series in this respect.

Closely connected with the statement, that the genus remains from an intermediate formation are in some degree intermediate in character is the fact, insisted on by all palaeontologists, that fossils from two consecutive formations are far more closely related to each other than are the fossils from two remote

which succeeded it. The theory which led to the sixth great stage of descent in the diagram are the modified offspring of those which led to the fifth stage, and are the parts of those which became still more modified at the sixth stage. Hence they could hardly fail to be nearly intermediate in character between the forms of life above and below. We must however allow for the time-lapse of some preceding forms, and in any region the immigration of new forms from other regions, and for large amounts of modification during the long and blank intervals between the successive formations. Subject to these allowances, the fossils of each geological

cies or groups of species. If by this term it is meant that an extinct form is directly intermediate in all its characters between two living forms or groups the objection is probably valid. But in a natural classification many fossil species certainly stand between living species and some extinct genera between living genera, even between genera belonging to distinct families. The most common case especially with respect to very distinct groups such as fish and reptiles seems to be that supposing them to be distinguished at the present day by a score of characters the ancient members are separated by a somewhat lesser number of characters so that the two groups formerly made a somewhat nearer approach to each other than they now do.

It is a common belief that the more ancient a form is by so much the more it tends to connect by some of its characters groups now widely separated from each other. This remark no doubt must be restricted to those groups which have undergone much of the difficulty

for example and then even a living animal as the *Lepidosiren* is discovered having affinities directed towards very distinct groups. Yet if we compare the older reptiles and batrachians the older fish the older cephalopods, and the eocene mammals with the more recent members of the same classes we must admit that there is truth in the remark.

Let us see how far these several facts and inferences accord with the theory of descent with modification. As the subject is somewhat complex I must request the reader to turn to the diagram in the fourth chapter. We may suppose that the numbered letters in italics represent genera and the dotted lines diverging from them the species in each genus. The diagram is much too simple too few genera and too few species being given but this is unimportant for us. The horizontal lines may represent successive geological periods.

to and a closely allied family or subfamily and *a* *m* a third family. These three families together with the many at net

their ancient progenitor. On the principle of the continued tendency to divergence of char

may differ from its ancient progenitor. Hence we can understand the rule that the most ancient fossils differ most from existing forms. We must not however assume that divergence of character is a necessary consequence it depends solely on the descendants from a species being thus enabled to seize on many and different places in the economy of nature. Therefore it is quite possible as we have seen in the case of *a* *c*

to retain throughout a vast period the same general characteristics. This is represented in the diagram by the letter *f*.

All the many forms *a* *b* *c* *d*

to be continued to the present day.

By looking at the diagram *a* *b* *c* *d*

to at several points *a* *b* *c* *d*

to be for instance the genera *a* *a'* *a''* *b* *b'* *b''* *m* *m'* were interrupted these three families. *a* *b* *c* *d*

to be occurred with ruminants at certain pachyderms. Yet he who objects to consider as intermediate the extinct genera which thus link together the living *a* *b* *c* *d*

extinct forms. If many extinct forms were to be discovered above one of the middle horizontal lines or geological formation — for instance above No. VI — but none from beneath this line then only two of the families (those on the left hand *a* & *c* and *b* & *d*) would have to be united into one and there would remain two families, which would be as distinct from each other then as they were before the discovery of the fossils. So again if the three families formed of eight genera (*a* to *m*) on the uppermost line be supposed to differ from each other by half as many constant characters,

and at what period the various forms of life first appeared and thus may well be disputed.

The problem whether organisation on the whole has advanced in man, we necessarily indicate. The geological record, at all times imperfect, does not extend far enough back to show with unmistakable clearness that within the known history of the world organisation has largely advanced. Even at the present day looking to members of the same class, naturalists are not unanimous which forms ought to be ranked as highest thus, some look to the selaceans, sharks, from their approach in some important points of structure to reptiles, as the highest fish others look at the teleosts as the highest. The ganoids stand intermediate between the selaceans and teleosts, the latter at the present day are largely preponderant in number but formerly selaceans and ganoids alone existed and in this case according to the standard of highness chosen, so would be said that fishes have advanced retrograded in organisation. The attempt to compare members of distinct types in the scale of highness seems hopeless who will decide whether cuttle-fish be higher than bees—that insect which the great von Baer believed to be in fact more highly organised than fish, although upon another type. In the complete structure of life it is quite credible that crustaceans, not very high in their own class, might beat cephalopods, the highest molluscs and such crustaceans, though not highly developed, would stand very high in the scale of invertebrate animals, if judged by the most decisive of all trials—the law of battle. Besides these inherent difficulties in deciding

such forms are the most advanced in organisation, we ought not solely to compare the highest members of class at any two periods—though undoubtedly this is one and perhaps the most important element in striking a balance—but to compare all the members, high and low at the two periods. At an ancient epoch the highest and lowest molluscan animals, namely cephalopods and brachiopods, varied in numbers at the present time both groups are greatly reduced, but others, intermediate in organisation, have largely increased consequently some naturalists maintain that molluscs were formerly more highly developed than at present but stronger case can be made out on the opposite side by considering the vast reduction of brachiopods, and the fact that our existing cephalopods, though few in number are more

highly organised than their ancient representatives. We ought also to compare the relative proportional numbers at any two periods of the high and low classes throughout the world if for instance, at the present day fifty thousand kinds of vertebrate animals exist, and if we knew that at some former period only ten thousand kinds existed, we ought to look at this increase in number in the highest class, which implies a great displacement of lower forms, as a decided advance in the organisation of the world. We thus see how very difficult it is to compare with perfect fairness under such extremely complex relations, the standards of organisation of the imperfectly known successive periods.

We had perceived this difficulty more clearly by looking to certain existing faunas and floras. From the extraordinary manner in which European productions have recently spread over New Zealand, and have seized on places which must have been previously occupied by the indigenous, we must believe that if all the animals and plants of Great Britain were set free in New Zealand, a multitude of British forms would in the course of time become thoroughly naturalised there and would exterminate many of the natives. On the other hand, from the fact that hardly a single inhabitant of the southern hemisphere has become wild in any part of Europe we may well doubt whether if all the productions of New Zealand were set free in Great Britain, any considerable number would be enabled to seize on places now occupied by our native plants and animals. Under this point of view the productions of Great Britain stand much higher in the scale than those of New Zealand. Yet the most skilful naturalist, from an examination of the species of the two countries, could not have foreseen this result.

Agassiz and several other highly competent judges insist that ancient animals resembled to a certain extent the members of recent animals belonging to the same classes and that the geological succession of distinct forms is nearly parallel with the embryological development of existing forms. This view accords admirably well with our theory. In future chapters I shall attempt to show that the adult differs from its embryo, owing to variations during supererogation at not early age, and having been inherited in corresponding age. This process, whilst it elevates the embryo almost unaltered, continually adds, in the course of successive generations, more and more difference to the

formations Pictet gives as a well known instance the general resemblance of the organic remains from the several stages of the Chalk formation though the species are distinct in each stage. This fact alone from its generality seems to have shaken Professor Pictet in his belief in the immutability of species. He who is acquainted with the distribution of existing species over the globe will not attempt to account for the close resemblance of distinct species in closely consecutive formations by the physical conditions of the ancient areas having remained nearly the same. Let it be remembered that the forms of life at least those inhabiting the sea, have changed almost simultaneously throughout the world and therefore under the most different climates and conditions. Consider the prodigious vicissitudes of climate during the pleistocene period which includes the whole glacial epoch and note how little the specific forms of the inhabitants of the sea have been affected.

On the theory of descent the full meaning of the fossil remains from closely consecutive formations being closely related though ranked as distinct species is obvious. As the accumulation of each formation has often been interrupted and as long blank intervals have intervened between successive formations we ought not to expect to find as I attempted to show in the last chapter in any one or in any two formations all the intermediate varieties between the species which appeared at the commencement and close of these periods but we ought to find after intervals, very long as measured by years but only moderately long as measured geologically closely allied forms, or as they have been called by some authors representative species and these assuredly we do find. We find in short, such evidence of the slow and scarcely sensible mutations of specific forms as we have the right to expect.

On the State of Development of Ancient compared with Living Forms

We have seen in the fourth chapter that the degree of differentiation and specialisation of the parts in organic beings when arrived at maturity is the best standard as yet suggested of their degree of perfection or highness. We have also seen that, as the specialisation of parts is an advantage to each being so natural selection will tend to render the organisation of each being more specialised and perfect and in this sense higher not but that it may leave many creatures with simple and

unimproved structures fitted for simple conditions of life and in some cases will even degrade or simplify the organisation yet leaving such degraded beings better fitted for their new walks of life. In another and more general manner new species become superior to their predecessors for they have to beat in the struggle for life all the older forms with which they come into close competition. We may therefore conclude that if under a nearly similar climate the eocene inhabitants of the world could be put into competition with the existing inhabitants the former would be beaten and exterminated by the latter as would the secondary by the eocene and the palaeozoic by the

organs modern forms ought on the theory of natural selection to stand higher than ancient forms. Is this the case? A large majority of palaeontologists would answer in the affirmative and it seems that this answer must be admitted as true though difficult of proof.

It is no valid objection to this conclusion that certain brachiopods have been but slightly modified from an extremely remote geological epoch and that certain land and fresh water shells have remained nearly the same from the

tions of life and what could be better fitted for this end than these lowly organised Protozoa? Such objections as the above would be

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ifera, for instance could be proved to have first come into existence during the Laurentian epoch or the above brachiopods during the Cambrian formation for in this case there would not have been time sufficient for the development of these organisms up to the standard which they had then reached. We can advanced up to any given point, there is no

in the cases of Brazil, there are many extinct species which are lost all ed in size and in all other characters to the species still living in South America and some of these fossil may have been the actual progenitors of the living species. It must not be forgotten that, our theory all the species of the same genus are the descendants of some one species so that, if six genera, each having eight species, be found in one geological formation, and in a succeeding formation there be six the altered or representative genera each with the same number of species, the whole would lead to the general conclusion that species of each of the six genera has left modified descendants, which constitute the six genera containing the several species the three species of each of the six genera having died out and left no progeny. And this will be far commoner case than two or three species in two or three also of the six genera will be the parents of the six genera the three species and the other three genera having become totally extinct. In failing orders, with the genera and species decreasing in numbers as is the case with the Edentata of South America, still few genera and species will leave modified blood-descendants.

Summary of the preceding and present Chapters

I have attempted to show that the geological record is tremendously imperfect that only a small portion of the globe has been geologically explored with care that only certain classes of organic beings have been largely preserved in the fossil state that the number both of specimens and of species, preserved in our museums, is absolutely as nothing compared with the number of generations which must have passed away during single formations that, owing to subsidence being almost necessary for the accumulation of deposits rich in fossil species of many kinds, and thick enough to outlast future degradation, great intervals of time must have elapsed between most of our successive formations that there has probably been more extinction during the periods of subsidence and more migration during the periods of elevation, and during the latter the record will have been less perfectly kept that each single formation has not been continuously deposited that the duration of each formation is probably short compared with the average duration of peculiar forms that migration has played an important part in the first appear-

ance of new forms in any one area and formation that the widely ranging species are those which have varied most frequently and have oftenest given rise to new species that migration has first been local and lastly although each species must have passed through numerous transitional stages, it is probable that the periods, during which each underwent modification, though many and long as measured by years, have been short in comparison with the periods during which each remained in an unchanged condition. These causes, taken conjointly will to a large extent explain why—though we do find many links—we do not find interminable series, connecting together all extinct and existing forms by the finest graduated steps. It should also be constantly borne in mind that any link in a series between two forms, which might be found, would be ranked unless the whole chain could be perfectly restored as new and distinct species for this is not pretended that we have any sure criterion by which species and varieties can be discriminated.

He who rejects this view of the imperfection of the geological record will rightly reject the whole theory. For he may ask in vain where are the numberless transitional links which must formerly have connected the closely allied representative species, found in the successive stages of the same great formation. He may disbelieve in the immense interval of time which must have elapsed between our consecutive formations he may overlook how important a part migration has played within the formations of any great region, as those of Europe are considered he may urge that apparent, but often falsely apparent, sudden coming in of whole groups of species. He may ask where are the remains of those infinitely numerous organisms which must have existed long before the Cambrian system was deposited. We now know with the least animal did then exist but I can answer this last question only by supposing that where our oceans now extend the land has extended for an enormous period, and where our oscillating continents now stand the land stood since the commencement of the Cambrian system but that, long before that epoch, the world presented a widely different aspect and that the land consisted of formed formations older than any known to us, exist now only as remnants in some ramphosed condition, but still buried under the ocean.

Passing from these difficulties, the other

adult. Thus the embryo comes to be left as a sort of picture preserved by nature, of the former and less modified condition of the species. This view may be true and yet may never be capable of proof. Seeing for instance that the oldest known mammals, reptiles and fishes strictly belong to their proper classes, though some of these old forms are in a slight degree less distinct from each other than are the typical members of the same groups at the present day.

are beneath the lowest Cambrian strata—a discovery of which the chance is small.

On the Succession of the same Types within the same Areas during the later Tertiary periods

Mr. Cuvier many years ago showed that the fossil mammals from the Australian caves were closely allied to the living marsupials of that continent. In South America a similar relationship is manifest even to an uneducated eye in the gigantic pieces of armour like those of the armadillo found in several parts of Brazil. I lately and Professor Owen has shown in the most striking manner that most of the fossil mammals buried there in such numbers are related to South American types. This relationship is even more clearly seen in the wonderful collection of fossil bones made by MM. Lund and Clausen in the caves of Brazil. I was so much impressed with these facts that I strongly insisted in 1839 and 1840 on this law of the succession of types—on this wonderful relationship in the same continent between the dead and the living. Professor Owen has subsequently extended the same generalisation to the mammals of the Old World. We see the same law in the

after comparing the present climate of Australia and of parts of South America, under the same latitude would attempt to account, on the one hand through dissimilar physical conditions, for the dissimilarity of the inhabitants of these two continents and on the other hand through similarity of conditions, for the uniformity of the same types in each continent during the later tertiary periods. Nor can it be pretended that it is an immutable law that marsupials should have been chiefly or solely produced in Australia or that Edentata and other American types should

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was formerly different from what it now is. North America formerly partook strongly of the present character of the southern half of the continent and the southern half was formerly more closely allied than it is at present to the northern half. In a similar manner we know from Falconer and Cautley's discoveries, that Northern India was formerly more closely related in its mammals to Africa than it is at the present time. Analogous facts could be given in relation to the distribution of marine animals.

On the theory of descent with modification, the great law of the long enduring but not immutable succession of the same types within the same areas is at once explained for the inhabitants of each quarter of the world will obviously tend to leave in that quarter during the next succeeding period of time closely allied though in some degree modified descendants. If the inhabitants of one continent formerly differed greatly from those of another continent, so will their modified descendants still differ in nearly the same manner and degree. But after very long intervals of time and after great geographical changes permitting much intermigration the feeble will yield to the more dominant forms, and there will be nothing immutable in the distribution of organic beings.

It may be asked in ridicule whether I suppose that the *Megatherium* and other allied huge monsters, which formerly lived in South America, have left behind them the slightest armadillo and anteater as their degenerated descendants. This cannot for an instant be admitted. These huge animals have become wholly extinct and have left no progeny. But

the same law holds good with sea shells but from the wide distribution of most molluscs it is not well displayed by them. Cases of exceptions are and

shells of the Aralo-Caspian Sea.

Now what does this remarkable law of the succession of the same types within the same areas mean? He would be a bold man who

CHAPTER VII

GEOGRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION

In considering the distribution of organic beings on the face of the globe the first great fact which strikes us is, that notwithstanding the marked dissimilarity of the inhabitants of various regions can be wholly accounted for by climatal and the physical conditions. Of late almost every theorist who has treated this subject has come to this conclusion. The case of America alone would almost suffice to prove the truth of it. We exclude the arctic and northern temperate parts, all theorists agree that of the most fundamental divisions in geographical distribution is that between the New and Old Worlds. Yet if we travel through the American continent, from the central parts of the United States to its extreme southern point, we meet with the most diversified conditions in mid-districts, and deserts, lofty mountains, grassy plains, forests, marshes, lakes, and great rivers, and almost every temperature. There is hardly a climate condition in the Old World which cannot be paralleled in the New—at least as closely as the same species generally require. No doubt small areas can be pointed out in the Old World hotter than any in the New World but these are not inhabited by faunas different from that of the surrounding districts for it is rare to find a group of organisms confined to a small area, if such the conditions are peculiarly slighted. In the standing this general parallelism in the conditions of the Old and New Worlds, however different are their living productions.

In the southern hemisphere if we compare large tracts of land in Australia, South Africa, and western South America, between latitudes 25° and 35° we shall find parts extremely similar in all their conditions, that it would not be possible to point out three faunas and floras more utterly dissimilar. Once again, we may compare the productions of South America south of lat. 30° with those north of 20° which consequently are separated by a space of ten degrees of latitude and are exposed to considerable different conditions yet they are incomparably more closely related to each other than they are to the productions of Australia or Africa under nearly the same climate. Numerous facts could be given with respect to the inhabitants of the sea.

A second great fact which strikes us in our general review is, that barriers of any kind obstacles to free migration, are related in a close and important manner to the differences between the productions of various regions. We see this in the great difference in nearly all the terrestrial productions of the New and Old Worlds, except in the northern parts, where the land almost joins, and where, under slightly different climate the elements have been free migration of the northern temperate faunas, as there is no wall of the inter-tropical productions. We see the same fact in the great difference between the inhabitants of Australia, Africa, and South America under the same latitude if these countries are almost as much isolated from each other as possible. On each continent, also, we see the same fact for on the opposite sides of living and continuous mountain ranges, of great deserts and even of large rivers, we find different productions though as in mountain-chains, deserts, &c., are not as impassable, or likely to have endured so long as the oceans separating continents, the differences are very inferior indeed to those characteristic of distinct continents.

Turning to the sea, we find the same law

Echinodermata in common but Dr. Gunther has recently shown that about the thirty per cent. of the fishes are the same on the opposite sides of the isthmus of Panama and this fact has led naturalists to believe that the isthmus was formed recently. Westward of the shores of America, wide space of open ocean extends, with not an island as a halting place for emigrants here we have a barrier of another kind, and as soon as this is passed we meet in the eastern islands of the Pacific with another and totally distinct fauna. So that three marine faunas range far northward and southward in parallel lines not far from each other and corresponding climates but from being separated from each other by impassable barriers, either of land or open sea, they are almost wholly distinct. On the other hand proceeding still farther westward from the eastern island of the tropical parts of the Pacific, we en-

great leading facts in palæontology agree admirably with the theory of descent with modification through variation and natural selection. We can thus understand how it is that new species come in slowly and successively how species of different classes do not necessarily change together or at the same rate or in the same degree yet in the long run that all undergo modification to some extent. The extinction of old forms is the almost inevitable consequence of the productions of new forms. We can understand why when a species has once disappeared it never reappears. Groups of species increase in numbers slowly and

dominant species belonging to large and dominant groups tend to leave many modified descendants which form new sub groups and groups. As these are formed the species of the less vigorous groups from their inferiority in

sometimes been a slow process from the survival of a few descendants lingering in protected and isolated situations. When a group has once wholly disappeared it does not reappear for the link of generation has been broken.

We can understand how it is that dominant forms which spread widely and yield the greatest number of varieties tend to people the world with allied but modified descendants and these will generally succeed in displacing the groups which are their inferiors in the struggle for existence. Hence after long intervals of time the productions of the world appear to have changed simultaneously.

We can understand how it is that all the forms of life ancient and recent make together a few grand classes. We can understand from the continual tendency to divergence of character why the more ancient a form is the more it generally differs from those now living why ancient and extinct forms often tend to fill up gaps between existing forms sometimes

blending two groups, previously classed as distinct into one but more commonly bringing them only a little closer together. The more ancient a form is the more often it stands in some degree intermediate between groups now distinct for the more ancient a form is, the more nearly it will be related to and consequently resemble the common progenitor of groups since become widely divergent. Extinct forms are seldom directly intermediate between existing forms but are intermediate only by a long and circuitous course through other extinct and different forms. We can clearly see why the organic remains of closely consecutive formations are closely allied for they are closely linked together by generation. We can clearly see why the remains of an intermediate formation are intermediate in character.

far higher in the scale and their structure has generally become more specialised and this may account for the common belief held by so many palæontologists that organisation on the whole has progressed. Extinct and ancient animals resemble to a certain extent the embryos of the more recent animals belonging to the same classes and this wonderful fact receives a simple explanation according to our views. The succession of the same types of structure within the same areas during the later geological periods ceases to be mysterious and is intelligible on the principle of inheritance.

If then the geological record be as imperfect as many believe and it may at least be asserted that the record cannot be proved to be much more perfect the main objections to the theory of natural selection are greatly diminished or destroyed. On the other hand all the chief

supplanted by new and improved forms of life the products of variation and the survival of the fittest.

We can thus understand how it is that new species come in slowly and successively how species of different classes do not necessarily change together or at the same rate or in the same degree yet in the long run that all undergo modification to some extent The extinction of old forms is the almost inevitable consequence of the productions of new forms We can understand why when a species has once disappeared it never reappears Groups of species increase in numbers slowly and endure for unequal periods of time for the process of modification is necessarily slow and depends on many complex contingencies The dominant species belonging to large and dominant groups tend to leave many modified descendants which form new sub groups and groups As the e are formed the species of the less vigorous groups from their inferiority inherited from a common progenitor tend to become extinct together and to leave no modified offspring on the face of the earth But the utter extinction of a whole group of species has sometimes been a slow process from the survival of a few descendants lingering in protected and isolated situations When a group has once wholly disappeared it does not reappear for the link of generation has been broken

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The inhabitants of the world at each successive period in its history have beaten their predecessors in the race for life and are in so far higher in the scale and their structure has generally become more specialised and this may account for the common belief held by so many paleontologists that organisation on the whole has progressed Extinct and ancient animals resemble to a certain extent the embryos of the more recent animals belonging to the same classes and this wonderful fact receives a simple explanation according to our views The succession of the same types of structure within the same areas during the later geological periods ceases to be mysterious and is intelligible on the principle of inheritance

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supplanted by new and improved forms of life the products of variation and the survival of the fittest.

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According to these views, the basis on which the racial species of the same genus, though inhabiting the most distant quarters of the world must originate all proceeded from the same source as they are descended from the same progenitor. In the case of these species which unite and differ while geologically period little odious to them, there is not much difficulty in believing that they have migrated from the same region of the last geographical land in the Atlantic which has pervaded the entire time, limit and amount of migration is possible. But in many of these cases, which have reason to believe that the species of the same race produced the comparatively recent times, there are great difficulties in this regard. It is also obvious that the individuals of the same species, though inhabiting distant and isolated regions, must have proceeded from the same place, where the parents are first produced. As has been explained the red blood of the individual is called the same solid which has been produced from parents peculiarly distinct.

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the naturalists that the wolf of each species
having been produced in a particular area and
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many cases of evolution which cannot be plain-
ly shown in the same species could be passed from
point to point through the geographical
and climatal changes which have occurred
and which have occurred with geological times.
The direct descent of the human race
from a single human species. So that we re-
duced to condition whether the exceptions to

counter no impassable barriers and we have innumerable islands as halting places or continuous coasts until after travelling over the hemisphere we come to the shores of Africa and over this vast space we meet with no well defined and distinct marine fauna. Although so few marine animals are common to the above named three approximate faunas of eastern and western America and the eastern Pacific islands yet many fishes range from the Pacific into the Indian Ocean and many shells are common to the eastern Indian and almost

the great fact partly included in the foregoing statement is the affinity of the production of the same continent or of the same sea though the species themselves are

different in travelling, for instance from north to south never fails to be struck by the manner in which successive groups of being specifically distinct though nearly related replace each other. He hears from closely allied yet distinct kinds of birds notes nearly similar and sees their nests similarly constructed but not quite alike with eggs coloured in nearly the same manner. The plains near the Straits of Magellan are inhabited by one species of Rheas (American ostrich) and northward the plains of La Plata by another species of the same genus and not by a true ostrich or emu like those inhabiting Africa and Australia under the same latitude. On these same plains of La Plata we see the agoutis and Ibizachas animals having nearly the same habits as our hares and rabbits and belonging to the same order of rodents but they plainly display an American type of structure. We ascend the lofty peaks of the Cordillera and we find an altogether new species of Ibizacha we look to the water and we do not find the beaver or muskrat but the capybara and capybara rodents of the American type. Innumerable other instances could be given. If we look to the islands off the American shore however much they may differ in geological structure the inhabitants are essentially American though they may be all peculiar species. We may look back to past ages, as shown in the last chapter and we find American types then prevailing on the American continent and in the American sea. We see in these facts some deep organic bond throughout space and time over the same

and bond is simply inheritance that cause which alone as far as we positively know produces organisms quite like each other or as we see in the case of varieties nearly alike. The dissimilarity of the inhabitants of different regions may be attributed to modification through variation and natural selection and

migration of the more dominant forms of life from one region into another having been more or less effectually prevented at periods more or less remote — on the nature and number of the former immigrants — and on the action of the inhabitants on each other in their total

the most important of all relations. Thus the high importance of barriers comes into play by checking migration as does time for the slow process of modification through natural selection. Widely ranging species abounding in individual which have already triumphed over many competitors in their own widely extended homes will have the best chance of seizing on a new place when they prevail in new countries. In their new homes they will be exposed to new conditions and will frequently undergo further modification and improvement and thus they will become still further victorious and will produce groups of modified descendants. On this principle of inheritance with modification we can understand how it is that sections of genera and genera and even families are confined to the same areas, as is so commonly and notoriously the case.

There is no evidence as was remarked in the last chapter of the existence of any law of increase or development. The variability of each species is an independent property and will be taken advantage of by the fittest

in quantity. If a number of species are left having to be competed with each other in the struggle for existence in a new and hitherto isolated country they will be little likely to be modified for neither migration nor isolation in themselves effect anything. These principles come into play only by

GEOGRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION

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to new relations with

widespread as more than a national use of terrestrial mammals than perhaps with any other region. Biological accordance with findings of naturalists in all continents. It is the world's No. 1 great biological treasure. It is the only one of its kind in the world.

peculiar to become greatly reduced in all notices. According to the various botanical studies, the species of plants in the various parts of the world are not the same. The species of plants in the various parts of the world are not the same. The species of plants in the various parts of the world are not the same.

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continuity of range are so numerous and of so grave a nature that we ought to give up the belief rendered probable by general considerations that each species has been produced within one area and has migrated thence as far as it could. It would be hopelessly tedious to discuss all the exceptional cases of the same species now living at distant and separated points nor do I for a moment pretend that any explanation could be offered of many instances. But after some preliminary remarks I will discuss a few of the most striking classes of facts namely the existence of the same species on the summits of distant mountain ranges and at distant points in the arctic and antarctic regions and secondly (in the following chapter) the wide distribution of freshwater productions and thirdly the occurrence of the same terrestrial species on islands and on the nearest mainland though separated by hundreds of miles of open sea. If the existence of the same species at distant and isolated points of the earth's surface can in many instances be explained on the view of each species having migrated from a single birthplace then considering our ignorance with respect to former climatal and geographical change and to the various occasional means of transport the belief that a single birthplace is the law seems to me incomparably the safest.

In discussing this subject we shall be enabled at the same time to consider a point equally important for us namely whether the several species of a genus which must on our theory all be descended from a common progenitor can have migrated undergoing modification during their migration from some one area. If when most of the species inhabiting one region are different from those of another region though closely allied to them it can be shown that migration from the one region to the other has probably occurred at some former period our general view will be much strengthened for the explanation is obvious on the principle of descent with modification. A volcanic island for instance upheaved and formed at the distance of a few hundreds of miles from a continent would probably receive from it in the course of time a few colonists, and their descendants though modified would still be related by inheritance to the inhabitants of that continent. Cases of this nature are common and are as we shall hereafter see inexplicable on the theory of independent creation. This view of the relation of the species of one region to those of another

does not differ much from that advanced by Mr Wallace who concludes that every species has come into existence coincident both in space and time with a pre-existing closely allied species. And it is now well known that he attributes this coincidence to descent with modification.

The question of single or multiple centres of creation differs from another though allied question—namely whether all the individuals of the same species are descended from a single pair or single hermaphrodite or whether as some authors suppose from many individuals simultaneously created. With organisms which never intercross if such exist each species must be descended from a succession of modified varieties that have supplanted each other but have never blended with other individuals or varieties of the same species so that at each successive stage of modification all the individuals of the same form will be descended from a single parent. But in the great majority of cases namely with all organisms which habitually unite for each birth or which occasionally intercross the individuals of the same species inhabiting the same area will be kept nearly uniform by intercrossing so that many individuals will go on mutually changing and the whole amount of modification at each stage will not be due to descent.

difference and superiority to descent from any single pair but to continue to care in the selecting and training of many individuals during

centres of creation. I must say a few words on the means of dispersal.

Means of Dispersal

Sir C. Lyell and other authors have all treated this subject. I can give here only the briefest abstract of the more important facts. Change of climate must have had a powerful influence on migration. A region now unsuitable to certain organisms from the nature of its climate might have been a high road for migration when the climate was different. I shall however presently have to discuss this branch of the subject in some detail. Changes of level in the land must also have been highly influential. A narrow isthmus now separates

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place them on sea water. The majority sank rapidly but some which whilst green floated for a short time when dried floated much longer for instance ripe hazel nuts sank immediately but when dried they floated for 90 days and afterwards when planted germinated an a. paragus plant with ripe berries floated for 3 days when dried it floated for 8 days and the seeds afterwards germinated the ripe seeds of *Helosciadium* sank in two days when dried they floated for above 90 days and afterwards germinated. Altogether out of the 94 dried plants 18 floated for above 8 days and some of the 18 floated for a very much longer period. So that as $\frac{1}{4}$ kinds of seeds germinated after an

be floated across a space of sea 900 miles in width and would then germinate. The fact of the larger fruits often floating longer than the small is interesting as plants with large seeds or fruit which as Alph. de Candolle has shown generally have restricted ranges, could hardly be transported by any other means.

Seeds may be occasionally transported in another manner. Drift timber is thrown upon most islands even on those in the mid of the widest oceans and the natives of the coral islands in the Pacific procure stones for their tools, solely from the roots of drifted trees, the stones being a valuable royal tax item that when irregularly shaped stones are embedded in the roots of trees, small particles of earth are frequently enclosed in their interstices and behind them — so perfectly that not a particle could be washed away during the longest transport out of one small portion of earth thus completely enclosed by the roots of a tree about 6 years old three dicotyledonous plants germinated. I am certain of the accuracy of this observation.

After being tried for above 28 days, we may conclude as far as anything can be inferred from the scanty facts that the seeds of 75 kinds of plants of any country might be floated by sea currents during 28 days and would retain their power of germination. In John I. J. *Physical Atlas* the average rate of the several Atlantic currents is 33 miles per diem (see

on this ing to miles to another country and when stranded if blown by an inland gale to a favourable spot would germinate.

Subsequently to my experiments Mr. Martins tried similar ones but in a much better manner for he placed the seeds in a box in the actual sea so that they were alternately wet and exposed to the air like really floating plants. He tried 98 seeds mostly different from mine but he chose many large fruits and likewise seeds from plants which live near the sea and thus would have favoured both the average length of their flotation and their resistance to the injurious action of the salt water. On the other hand he did not previously dry the plants or branches with the fruit and thus as we have seen would have caused some of them to have floated much longer. The result was that $\frac{1}{8}$ of his seeds of different kinds floated for 4 days, and were then capable of germination. But I do not doubt that plants exposed to the waves could float for a less time if an tide protected from violent movement as in our experiments. Therefore it would perhaps be safer to assume that the seeds of about 100 plants of a flora, after having been dried could

at many kinds of

immersion in sea water but some taken out of the crop of a pigeon which had floated on artificial water for 30 days, to my surprise nearly all germinated.

Living birds can hardly fail to be effective agents in the transportation of seeds on fre quently gale to sea. We may safely assume that under the circumstances their rate of flight would often be 3 miles an hour and some authors have given a far higher estimate. I have never seen a distance of 100 miles covered by seeds passing through the intestines of a bird but hard seeds of fruit pass unharmed through even the digestive organs of a bird. In the course of two months I kept flying in a garden 12 kinds of seeds at the discretion of small birds and these seeds all perfect and some of them have been found germinated. But the following fact is more important: the crops of birds do not seem to retain seeds

any day assert that all the seeds do not pass into the gizzards and fortify or even ignore

hours. A bird in this interval might easily be blown to the distance of 500 miles, and hawks are known to look out for tired birds, and the contents of their stomachs might thus readily get well red. Some hawks and wisboots prey whole and, after an interval of from twelve to twenty hours, digest the prey, which, as I know from experiments made in the Zoological Gardens, included seeds capable of germination. Some seeds of the oat, wheat, millet, canary hemp, and beet germinated after having been from twelve to twenty

hours in the stomach of different birds of prey and two seeds of beet grew after being retained for days and for sixteen hours. Fresh-water fish, if dried, the seed of man land and water plants fish are frequently preserved in birds, and the seed might be transported from place to place. I find many kinds of seeds in the stomachs of dead fish, and the germination of fish-eagles, terns, and pelicans these birds, after an interval of many hours, the rejected seeds in pellets passed through the excrement and several of these seeds retained the power of germination. Certain seeds, however, are always killed by this process.

Locusts are sometimes blown to great distances from the land. I myself caught in 30 miles from the coast of Africa, and have heard of the same great distances. The Rev. R. T. Low informed Mr. C. L. B. that November 1844 warm of locusts visited the island of Madeira. They were in colossal numbers, as thick as the flakes of snow in the heaviest snowstorm, and descended towards as far as could be seen with the telescope. During the three days they slowly crept over the land and round in an immense ellipse, the length of 50 miles in diameter and the height alighted on the tall trees, which were completely coated with them. They then disappeared to the sea, as did not as they had appeared, and have not been sighted on the island. Now in parts of the island the bellies of some farmers, the ghastly effluvia of the locusts, the injurious seeds are introduced into the grass-land. The dung left by the great flights of locusts which often visit the country. I consequently of this belief Mr. Weale sent me in a letter mail packet of the dried pellets, of which I extracted under the microscope several seeds, and raised from them several grass plants, belonging to two species of the genus. Hence warm of locusts, such as that which visited Madeira, might readily be the means of intro-

ducing several kinds of plants into an island lying far from the main land.

Although the beaks and feet of birds are generally clean, earth sometimes adheres to them. One case I remember of sixty-one grains, and in another case twenty-two grains of dry argillaceous earth from the foot of a partridge, and in the earth there was a pebble as large as the seed of wheat. If there is a better case than that of a woodcock was sent to me by a friend, with a little cake of dry earth attached to the hank, weighing eleven grains and thus contained a seed of the broad rush (*Juncus b. fo.*) which germinated and flowered. Mr. N. island of Brit. who did not last fortnight has paid close attention to ornithology, informs me that he has often seen the wagtails (*M. lacialis*) when at-eats, and whinchals (*axicolae*) on their first arrival upon the rocks, before they had alighted, and he has several times noticed little cakes of earth attached to their feet. Many facts could be given showing how generally so it is charged with seed. For instance, I refer to Newt. sent

and weighing six and a half ounces. The earth had been kept for three years, but when broken, was red and placed in a bell glass, less than 8 plants grew from these consisted of 11 monocotyledons, including the common oat, and the least one kind of grass, and of 10 dicotyledons, which consisted, judging from the general appearance, of at least three distinct species. With such facts before us, can we doubt that the main bird which are annually blown by gales across great spaces of ocean, and which annually migrate—in instance the millions of quails across the Mediterranean—must occasionally transport a few seeds embedded in dirt adhering to their feet or beaks. But I shall have to recur to this subject.

As *cebergs* are known to be some times loaded with earth and stones, and have unarmied brushwood, bones, and the nest of a land bird it can hardly be doubted that they must occasionally be carried by the wind, transported seed from one part to another of the arctic and antarctic regions and during the Glacial period from one part of the new temperate regions to another. In the Azores, from the large number of plants common to Europe in comparison with the species in the other islands of the Atlantic, which stand nearer to the mainland and (as remarked by

Mr H C Watson) from their somewhat northern character in comparison with the latitude I suspected that these islands had been partly stocked by ice borne seeds during the Glacial epoch. At my request Sir C Lyell wrote to M Hartung to inquire whether he had observed erratic boulder on these islands and he answered that he had found large fragments of granite and other rocks which do not occur in the archipelago. Hence we may safely infer that icebergs formerly landed their rocky burthens on the shores of these mid ocean island and it is at least possible that they may have brought thither some few seeds of northern plants.

Considering that these several means of transport and that other means which without doubt remain to be discovered have been in action year after year for tens of thousands of years it would I think be a marvellous fact if many plants had not thus become widely transported. These means of transport are sometimes called accidental but this is not strictly correct the currents of the sea are not accidental nor is the direction of prevalent gales of wind. It should be observed that scarcely any means of transport would carry seeds for very great distances for seeds do not retain their vitality when exposed for a great length of time to the action of sea water nor could they be long carried in the crops or intestines of birds. These means however would suffice for occasional transport across tracts of sea some hundred miles in breadth or from island to island or from a continent to a neighbouring island but not from one distant continent to another. The floras of distant continents would not by such means become mingled but would remain as distinct as they now are. The currents from their course would never bring seeds from North America to Britain though they might and do bring seeds from the West Indies to our western shores where if not killed by their very long immersion in salt water they could not endure our climate. Almost every year one or two land birds are blown across the whole Atlantic Ocean from North America to the western shores of Ireland and England but seed could be transported by these rare wanderers only by one means, namely by dirt adhering to their feet or beaks, which is in itself a rare accident. Even in this case how small would be the chance of a seed falling on favourable soil and coming to maturity! But it would be a great error to argue that because a well stocked

island like Great Britain has not as far as is known (and it would be very difficult to prove this) received within the last few centuries, through occasional means of transport, immigrants from Europe or any other continent, that a poorly stocked island though standing more remote from the mainland would not receive colonists by similar means. Out of a hundred kinds of seeds or animals transported to an island even if far less well stocked than Britain perhaps not more than one would be so well fitted to its new home as to become naturalised. But this is no valid argument against what would be effected by occasional means of transport during the long lapse of geological time whilst the island was being upheaved and before it had become fully stocked with inhabitants. On almost bare land with few or no destructive insects or birds living there nearly every seed which chanced to arrive if fitted for the climate would germinate and survive.

Dispersal during the Glacial Period

The identity of many plants and animals, on mountain summits separated from each other by hundreds of miles of lowlands where Alpine species could not possibly exist is one of the most striking facts known of the same species living at distant points without the apparent possibility of their having migrated from one point to the other. It is indeed a remarkable fact to see so many plants of the same species living on the snowy regions of the Alps or Pyre-

States of America, are all the same with those of Labrador and nearly all the same as we hear from Asia Cray with those on the highest mountain of Europe. Even as long ago as 1747 such facts led Gmelin to conclude that the same species must have been in legendarily created at many distinct points and we might have remained in this same belief had not Agassiz and others called vivid attention to the Glacial period which as we shall immediately see affords a simple explanation of these facts. We have evidence of almost every conceivable kind organic and inorganic that within a very recent geological period central Europe and Northern Asia suffered under an arctic climate. The ruins of a house burnt by fire do not tell their tale more plainly than do the mountains of Scotland and Wales, with their scored flanks, polished surfaces, and

GEOGRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION

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perched bold as, f th treams with which the all w relat ly filled So greatly has th clim te f E rope hanged th t north rn Ital g gant c m rain s, l ft by ld glaciers, are now lolled by th vine and maize Thro gh t large part of the United tates, r tiebo lders and so ed ocks pla dy

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Mr H C Watson) from their somewhat northern character in comparison with the latitude I expected that these islands had been partly stocked by ice-borne seeds, during the Glacial epoch. At my request Sir C Lyell wrote to M Hartung to inquire whether he had observed erratic boulders on these islands, and he answered that he had found large fragments of granite and other rocks, which do not occur in the archipelago. Hence we may safely infer that icebergs formerly landed their rocky burthen on the shores of these mid-ocean islands, and it is at least possible that they may have brought thither some few seeds of northern plants.

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plants and animal of the several great European mountain range one with another though many of the species remain identically the same some exist as varieties, some as doubtful forms or subspecies, and some as distinct yet closely allied species representing each other on the several ranges.

In the foregoing illustration I have assumed that at the commencement of our imaginary Glacial period the arctic productions were as uniform round the polar regions as they are at the present day. But it is also necessary to assume that many subarctic and some few temperate forms were the same round the world for some of the species which now exist on the lower mountain slopes and on the plains of North America and Europe are the same and it may be asked how I account for this degree of uniformity in the subarctic and temperate forms round the world at the commencement of the real Glacial period. At the present day the subarctic and northern temperate production of the Old and New Worlds are separated from each other by the whole Atlantic Ocean and by the northern part of the Pacific. During the Glacial period when the inhabitants of the Old and New Worlds lived farther southward than they do at present, they must have been still more completely separated from each other by wider space of ocean so that it may well be asked how the same species could then or previously have entered the two continents. The explanation I believe lies in the nature of the climate before the commencement of the Glacial period. At this, the newer Pliocene period the majority of the inhabitants of the world were geographically the same as now and we have good reason to believe that the climate was warmer than at the present day. Hence we may suppose that the organisms which now live under latitude 60° lived during the Pliocene period farther north under the Polar Circle in latitude 66°-68° and that the present arctic productions then lived on the broken land till nearer to the pole. Now if we looked at a terrestrial globe, we see under the Polar Circle that there is almost continuous land from western Europe, through Siberia, to northern America. And this continuity of the circum-polar land with the consequent freedom under a more favourable climate for intermigration, will account for the supposed uniformity of the subarctic and temperate productions of the Old and New Worlds, at a period anterior to the Glacial epoch.

Believing from reason before adduced that our continents have long remained in nearly the same relative position, though subjected to great oscillation of level, I am therefore inclined to extend the above view and to assert that during some still earlier and still warmer period such as the older Pliocene period, a large number of the same plants and animals inhabited the almost continuous circum-polar land and that these plants and animals, both in the Old and New Worlds, began slowly to migrate southward as the climate became less warm long before the commencement of the Glacial period. We now see as I believe their descendants, mostly in a modified condition, in the central parts of Europe and the United States. On this view we can understand the relationship with very little identity between the productions of North America and Europe—a relationship which is highly remarkable considering the distance of the two areas, and their separation by the whole Atlantic Ocean. We can further understand the singular fact remarked on by several observers that the productions of Europe and America during the later tertiary stages were more closely related to each other than they are at the present time for during these warmer periods the northern parts of the Old and New Worlds will have been almost continuously united by land, serving as a bridge, once rendered in passable by cold for the intermigration of their inhabitants.

During the slowly decreasing warmth of the Pliocene period as soon as the species in common which inhabited the New and Old Worlds migrated south of the Polar Circle they will have been completely cut off from each other. This separation as far as the more temperate productions are concerned must have taken place long ages ago. As the plants and animals migrated southwards, they will have become mingled in the one great region with the native American productions, and so will have had to compete with them and in the other great region with those of the Old World. Consequently we have here everything favourable for uniformification,—for far more modification than in the Alpine productions, left isolated within a much more recent period in the several mountain ranges and on the arctic lands of Europe and America. Hence it has come that when we compare the now living productions of the temperate regions of the New and Old Worlds, we find only a few identical species (though Asa Gray has lately

shown that more plants are identical than was formerly supposed) but we find in every great class many forms, which some naturalists rank as geographical races, and others as distinct species and hosts of local allied or representative forms which are ranked by all naturalists as specifically distinct.

As on the land, so in the waters of the sea, a low southern migration of a marine fauna, which, during the Eocene or even a somewhat earlier period, was nearly uniform along the continuous shores of the Polar Circle, will

can understand the presence of some closely allied, still existing, and extinct tertiary forms, on the eastern and western shores of temperate North America and the still more striking fact of many local allied crustaceans (as

two areas only, and the breadth of whole continent and broad spaces of ocean.

These cases of close relationship in species either now forming inhabiting the seas on the eastern and western shores of North America, the Mediterranean and Japan, and the temperate land of North America and Europe are inexplicable by the theory of creation. We cannot maintain that such species have been created alike in correspondence with the nearly similar physical conditions of the areas for if we compare for instance certain parts of South America with parts of South Africa or Australia, we see countries closely similar in all their physical conditions, with their inhabitants utterly dissimilar.

Alternating Glacial Periods in the North and South

But we must return to our more immediate subject. I am convinced that Forbes' view may be largely extended. In Europe we meet with the plainest evidence of the Glacial period, from the western shores of Britain to the Gural range and southward to the Pyrenees. We may infer from the frozen mammals and nature of the mountain elevation, that Siberia was similarly affected. In the Lebanon, according to Dr Hooker perpetual snow formerly covered the central axis, and fed glaciers which rolled 400 feet down the valleys. The same observer has recently found great mo-

tain ice in the Atlas range in Africa. Along the Himalayas, at points 900 miles apart, glaciers have left the marks of their former low descent and in the Himalayas, Dr Hooker saw maize grown on ancient and gigantic moraines. So toward the Asiatic continent, on the opposite side of the equator we know from the excellent researches of Dr J. Haast and Dr Hector that in New Zealand immense glaciers formerly descended to a low level and the same plants found by Dr Hooker

on widely separated mountains in this island tell the same story of a former cold period. From facts communicated to me by the Rev W. B. Clark it appears also that there are traces of former glacial action on the mountains of the south-eastern corner of Australia.

Looking to America in the north we half-ice-born fragments of rock have been observed on the eastern side of the continent, as far south as lat. 36° 35' and on the shores of the Pacific, where the climate is now so different, as far south as lat. 46°. Erratic boulders have also been noticed on the Rocky Mountains. In the Cordillera of South America, nearly under the equator glaciers once extended far below their present level. In Central

America, in the northern part of the Cordillera, from lat. 15° to 30° N., at also at the height of 12,000 feet, deeply frozen rocks, resembling those with which we are familiar in Norway and likewise great masses of detritus, including grooved pebbles. Along this whole space of the Cordillera true glaciers do not exist even to much more considerable heights. Farther south on both sides of the continent, from lat. 41° to the southernmost extremity we have the clearest evidence of former glacial action, in numerous immense boulders transported far from their parent source.

From these several facts, namely from the glacial action having extended all round the northern and southern hemispheres—from the period having been in geological sense recent in both hemispheres—from its having lasted in both during a great length of time, as may be inferred from the amount of work affected—and lastly from glaciers having recently descended to a low level also the whole line of the Cordillera, it is on the face of things that we could not avoid the conclusion that

the temperature of the whole world had been simultaneously lowered during the Glacial period. But now Mr Croll in a series of admirable memoirs has attempted to show that a glacial condition of climate is the result of various physical causes brought into operation by an increase in the eccentricity of the earth's orbit. All these causes tend towards the same end, but the most powerful appears to be the indirect influence of the eccentricity of the orbit upon oceanic currents. According to Mr Croll cold periods regularly occur every ten or fifteen thousand years, and these at long intervals are extremely severe, owing to certain contingencies of which the most important, as Sir C. Lyell has shown, is the relative position of the land and water. Mr Croll believes that the last great Glacial period occurred about 240 000 years ago, and endured with slight alterations of climate for about 160 000 years. With respect to more ancient Glacial periods several geologists are convinced from direct evidence that such occurred during the Miocene and Eocene formations, not to mention still more ancient formations. But the most important result for us arrived at by Mr Croll is that whenever the northern hemisphere passes through a cold period the temperature of the southern hemisphere is actually raised, with the winters rendered much milder, chiefly through changes in the direction of the ocean currents. So conversely it will be with the northern hemisphere whilst the southern passes through a Glacial period. This conclusion throws so much light on geographical distribution that I am strongly inclined to trust in it, but I will first give the facts which demand an explanation.

In South America Dr Hooker has shown that besides many closely allied species between forty and fifty of the flowering plants of Tierra del Fuego forming no inconsiderable part of its scanty flora are common to North America and Europe, enormously remote as the areas in opposite hemispheres are from each other. On the lofty mountains of equatorial America a host of peculiar species belonging to European genera occur. On the Organ mountains of Brazil some few temperate European, some Antarctic and some Andean genera were found by Gardner, which do not exist in the low intervening hot countries. On the Silla of Caracas the illustrious Humboldt long ago found species belonging to genera characteristic of the Cordillera.

In Africa several forms characteristic of

Europe and some few representatives of the flora of the Cape of Good Hope occur in the mountains of Abyssinia. At the Cape of Good Hope a very few European species believed not to have been introduced by man, and on the mountains several representative European forms are found, which have not been discovered in the intertropical parts of Africa. Dr Hooker has also lately shown that several of the plants living on the upper parts of the lofty island of Fernando Po, and on the neighbouring Cameroon mountains in the Gulf of Guinea, are closely related to those on the mountains of Abyssinia, and likewise to those of temperate Europe. It now also appears, as I hear from Dr Hooker, that some of these same temperate plants have been discovered by the Rev. R. T. Lowe on the mountains of the Cape Verde Islands. This extension of the same temperate forms almost under the equator across the whole continent of Africa and to the mountains of the Cape Verde Archipelago is one of the most astonishing facts ever recorded in the distribution of plants.

On the Himalayas and on the isolated mountain ranges of the peninsula of India, on the heights of Ceylon, and on the volcanic cones of Java, many plants occur either identically the same or representing each other, and at the same time representing plants of Europe not found in the intervening hot lowlands. What the genera of plants collected on the loftier peaks of Java raises a picture of a collection made on a hillcock in Europe! Still more striking is the fact that peculiar Australian forms are represented by certain plants growing on the summits of the mountains of Borneo. Some of these Australian forms, as I hear from Dr Hooker, extend along the heights of the peninsula of Malacca, and are thinly scattered on the one hand over India, and on the other hand as far north as Japan.

On the southern mountains of Australia, Dr F. Müller has discovered several European species, other species not introduced by man occur on the lowlands, and a long list can be

large island. Hence we see that certain plants growing on the more lofty mountains of the tropics in all parts of the world, and on the temperate plains of the north and south are

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These latter when the warmth returned would return to their former homes leaving some few species on the mountains, and carrying southward with them some of the northern temperate forms which had descended from their mountain fastnesses. Thus we should have some few species identically the same in the northern and southern temperate zones and on the mountains of the intermediate tropical regions. But the species left during a long time on these mountains or in opposite hemispheres would have to compete with many new forms and would be exposed to somewhat different physical conditions hence they would be eminently liable to modification and would generally now exist as varieties or as representative species and thus is the case. We must also bear in mind the occurrence in both hemispheres of former Glacial periods for these will account in accordance with the same principles, for the many quite distinct species inhabiting the same widely separated areas and belonging to genera not now found in the intermediate torrid zones.

It is a remarkable fact strongly insisted on by Hooker in regard to America, and by Alph. de Candolle in regard to Australia, that many more identical or slightly modified species have migrated from the north to the south than in a reversed direction. We see however a few southern forms on the mountains of Borneo and Abyssinia. I suspect that this preponderant migration from the north to the south is due to the greater extent of land in the north and to the northern forms having existed in their own homes in greater numbers and having consequently been advanced through natural selection and competition to a higher stage of perfection or dominating power than the southern forms. And thus when the two sets became commingled in the equatorial regions during the alternations to the Glacial periods the northern forms were the more powerful and were able to hold their places on the mountains and afterwards to migrate southward with the southern forms but not so the southern in regard to the northern forms. In the same manner at the present day the

two or three centuries from La Plata and during the last forty or fifty years from Australia. The Neilgherrie mountains in India, however offer a partial exception for here as I hear from Dr. Hooker Australian forms are rapidly sowing themselves and becoming naturalised. Before the last great Glacial period no doubt the intertropical mountains were stocked with endemic Alpine forms but these have almost everywhere yielded to the more dominant forms generated in the larger areas and more efficient workshops of the north. In many islands the native productions are nearly

are stands on the land and their inhabitants have yielded to those produced within the larger areas of the north just in the same way as the inhabitants of real islands have everywhere yielded and are still yielding to continental forms naturalised through man's agency.

The same principles apply to the distribution of terrestrial animal and of marine productions in the northern and southern temperate zones and on the intertropical mountains. When during the height of the Glacial period the ocean currents were widely different to what they now are some of the inhabitants of the temperate seas might have reached the equator of these a few would perhaps at once be able to migrate southward by keeping to the cooler currents, whilst others might remain and survive in the colder depths until the southern hemisphere was in its turn subjected to a glacial climate and permitted their further progress in nearly the same manner as arctic productions exist to the present day in the deeper parts of the northern temperate seas.

I am far from supposing that all the difficulties in regard to the distribution and affinities of the identical and allied species, which now live so widely separated in the north and south and sometimes on the intermediate mountain ranges are removed on the views above given. The exact lines of migration cannot be indicated. We can not say why certain species and not others have migrated why certain species have been modified and have given rise to new forms whilst others have remained unaltered. We cannot hope to explain such facts, until we can say why one species and not another become naturalised by man's agency in a foreign land by its species

ranges twice, thrice as far and is twice as
thrice as common, as another species within
their own homes.

Various special difficulties also remain to be
solved for instance the occurrence as shown
by D. Hooker of the same plant at points so
enormously remote as the Arguello Land, New
Zealand, and Fuegia by icebergs, as suggested
by L. H. May has been considered in their
dispersal. The existence at these and other
distant points of the so-called maritime relict
species, which, though distant, belong to
genera exclusively confined to the south, is a
more remarkable case. Some of these species
are so distinct, that we cannot suppose that
there has been a union since the commencement
of the last Glacial period for their migration
and subsequent modification is the necessary
degree. The facts seem to indicate that dis-
tinct species belonging to the same genera have
migrated in radiating lines from a common
centre and I am inclined to look in the south
as in the north maritime relict to a former
and warm period before the commencement
of the last Glacial period, when the Antarctic
lands were covered with ice, supposed to have
peculiar and isolated flora. It may be expected
that before this flora was exterminated during
the last Glacial epoch, if we find fossils had been
already widely dispersed to various points of
the southern maritime relict occasional means
of transport, and both as halting places,
of now unken islands. Thus the southern

throughout in warm
by the land which has been seen that M. Croll's
conclusion that the Glacial period in
the southern hemisphere coincides with warm periods
in the opposite hemisphere, together with
the admission of the slow modification of
species, explains a multitude of facts in the
distribution of the same and of the allied forms
of life all parts of the globe. The living
waters have flowed during one period from the
north and during another from the south, and
in both cases have reached the equator but
the stream of life has flowed with greater force
from the north than in the opposite direction,
and has consequently more freely undated
the southern lands. As the tidal waves drift in hori-
zontal lines, rising higher on the shores where
the tide rises highest, so have the land waters
lifted their load of drift in our mountain ranges,
in the high mountains rising from the arctic
islands at a great altitude and the equator.
Thus are we being thus left stranded may be
compared with a great acre of man, driven up
and up in the mountain fastnesses of
almost every land, which serves as a record,
full of interest to us, of the former inhabitants
of the surrounding lowlands.

CHAPTER VIII

GEOGRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION *Continued*

Fresh water Productions

AS LAKES and river systems are separated from each other by barriers of land it might have been thought that fresh water produc-

still more formidable barriers than they could ever have extended to distant countries. But the case is exactly the reverse. Not only have many fresh water species belonging to different classes an enormous range but allied species prevail in a remarkable manner throughout the world. When first collecting in the fresh water of Brazil I well remember feeling much surprise at the similarity of the fresh water insects, shells, &c. and at the dissimilarity of the surrounding terrestrial beings compared with those of Britain.

But the wide ranging power of fresh water productions can I think in most cases be explained by their having become fitted in a manner highly useful to them for short and frequent migrations from pond to pond or from stream to stream within their own countries and follow from

necessary consequence

few cases of these some of the most difficult to explain are presented by fish. It was formerly believed that the same fresh water species never existed on two continents distant from each other. But Dr Günther has lately shown that the *Galaxias attenuatus* inhabits Tasmania, New Zealand, the Falkland Islands and the mainland of South America. This is a wonderful case and probably indicates dispersal from an Antarctic centre during a former warm period. This case however is rendered in some degree less surprising by the species of this genus having the power of crossing by some

open communication to New Zealand.

though separated by a distance of about 230 miles. On the same continent fresh water fish often range widely and as if capriciously for in two adjoining river systems some of the species may be the same and some wholly different.

It is probable that they are occasionally transported by what may be called accidental

means, mainly attributed to changes in the level of the land within the recent period causing rivers to flow into each other. Instances, also, could be given of this having occurred during floods, without any change of level. The wide difference of the fish on the opposite sides of most mountain ranges which are continuous, and which consequently must from an early period have completely prevented the intercommunication of the river systems on the two sides leads to the

conclusion that for much migration. Moreover Dr Günther has recently been led by several considerations to infer that with fishes the same forms have a long endurance. Salt water fish can with care be slowly accustomed to live in fresh water and according to Valenciennes there is hardly a single group of which all the members are confined to fresh water so that a marine species belonging to a fresh water group might travel far along the shores of the sea, and could it is probable become adapted with little much difficulty to the fresh waters of a distant land.

Some species of fresh water shells have very wide range and allied species which on our theory are descended from a common parent, and must have proceeded from a single source prevail throughout the world. Their distribution at first perplexed me much as their ova are not likely to be transported by birds and the ova as well as the adult are immediately killed by sea-water. I could not even understand how some naturalised species have spread rapidly throughout the same country. But two facts which I have observed—and many others no doubt will be discovered—throw some light on this subject. When ducks suddenly emerge from a pool covered with duck weed I have twice seen these little plants

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intruder from the waters of a foreign country would have a better chance of seizing on a new place than in the case of terrestrial colonists. We should also remember that many fresh water productions are low in the scale of nature and we have reason to believe that such beings become modified more slowly than the high and this will give time for the migration of aquatic species. We should not forget the probability of many fresh water forms having formerly ranged continuously over immense areas and then having become extinct at intermediate points. But the wide distribution of fresh water plants and of the lower animals whether retaining the same identical form or in some degree modified apparently depends in main part on the wide dispersal of their seeds and eggs by animals more especially by fresh water birds which have great powers of flight and naturally travel from one piece of water to another.

On the Inhabitants of Oceanic Islands

We now come to the last of the three classes of fact which I have selected as presenting the greatest amount of difficulty with respect to distribution on the view that not only all the individuals of the same species have migrated from some one area but that allied species although now inhabiting the most distant points have proceeded from a single area—the birthplace of their early progenitors. I have already given my reasons for disbelieving in continental extensions within the period of existing species on so enormous a scale that all the many islands of the several oceans were thus stocked with their present terrestrial inhabitants. This view removes many difficulties but it does not accord with all the facts in regard to the productions of islands. In the following remarks I shall not confine myself to the mere question of dispersal but shall consider some other cases bearing on the truth of the two theories of independent creation and of descent with modification.

The species of all kinds which inhabit oceanic islands are few in number compared with those on equal continental areas. Alph. de Candolle admits this for plants and Wollaston for insects. New Zealand for instance with its lofty mountains and diversified stations extending over 780 miles of latitude together with the outlying islands of Auckland Campbell and Chatham contain altogether only 960 kinds of flowering plants if we compare this moderate number with the species which swarm over

equal areas in South Western Australia or at the Cape of Good Hope we must admit that some cause independently of different physical conditions has given rise to so great a difference in number. Even the uniform country of Cambridge has 847 plants and the little island of Anglesea 764 but a few ferns and a few introduced plants are included in these numbers, and the comparison in some other respects is not quite fair. We have evidence that the barren island of Ascension aboriginally possessed less than half a-dozen flowering plants yet many species have now become naturalised on it, as they have in New Zealand and on every other oceanic island which can be named. In St Helena there is reason to believe that the naturalised plants and animals have nearly or quite exterminated many native productions. He who admits the doctrine of the creation of each separate species will have to admit that a sufficient number of the best adapted plants and animals were not created for oceanic islands for man has unintentionally stocked them far more fully and perfectly than did nature.

Although in oceanic islands the species are few in number the proportion of endemic kinds (i.e. those found nowhere else in the world) is often extremely large. If we compare for instance the number of endemic land shells in Madeira or of endemic birds in the Galapagos Archipelago with the number found on any continent and then compare the area of the island with that of the continent we shall see that this is true. This fact might have been theoretically expected for as already explained species occasionally arriving after long intervals of time in the new and isolated district and having to compete with new associates would be eminently liable to modification and would often produce groups of modified descendants. But it by no means follows that because in an island nearly all the species of one class are peculiar those of another class or of another section of the same class are peculiar and this difference seems to depend partly on the species which are not modified having immigrated in a body so that their mutual relations have not been much disturbed and partly on the frequent arrival of unmodified immigrants from the mother country with which the insular forms have intercrossed. It could be borne in mind that at the off spring of such crosses would certainly gain in vigour so that even an occasional cross would produce more effect than might have

be anticipated I will give a few illustrations of the foregoing remarks. In the Galapagos Islands there are 6 land birds of the species (3) are peculiar whereas of the 11 marine birds only are peculiar and the obvious that marine birds come to land more than land birds. Birds of the same kind and which live about the same distance from the shore as the Galapagos Islands do from South America and which has a very peculiar color.

For the island of Santa Cruz as I am informed by Mr. E. V. Harcourt, the European and African birds are brought to Madagascar this island is inhabited by 99 kinds of which alone is peculiar to the island. I related to the European and

other and have become mutually co-adapted.

And again, in the island of Santa Cruz, I checked by intercrossing with the unmodified immigrants, the animals from the mother country. Madagascar is inhabited by a few peculiar species of land shells, which are peculiar to the species of shells peculiar to the

dred miles of the sea far more easily than land shells. The different orders of insects inhabiting Madagascar present nearly parallel cases.

Ocean islands resemble the same in animals of certain whole classes, and the

the Zeland is here spoken of as an oceanic island it is in some degree different from the land but so ranked that it is and is separated from the land by profound

deep sea from its geological character and the direction of the currents, the Rev. W. B. Clark has lately maintained that the island as well as the Galapagos Islands be considered as part of the Pacific. Turning to plants, Dr. Hooker has shown that the Galapagos Islands are the most important as the naturalistic collection.

Many remarkable facts could be given with respect to the inhabitants of oceanic islands. For instance, a certain land not visited by a single mammal, some of the endemic plants have the most looked seed, yet few relations are manifest than that looks serve the purpose of seed in the wool of the woolly adpans. But looked seed might be carried to a land by the means and the plant then become modified with the form and endemic species, still retaining its hooks, which would be useless appendage like the shelled wings of the soldered wing-coleoptera of many island beetles. Again,

lands often possess the characteristic of the islands which have been already mentioned. In the case of the islands, as Mr. de Candolle has shown, the plants which are the cause may be, confined range. Hence trees would be little likely to reach distant oceanic land and an herbaceous plant, which had a chance of successful competition with the many of the deep tree growth on the coast, might, when established on a land gain an advantage in the herbaceous

to which the land is brought, and the first collection into bush and the first tree.

Absence of Birds and Terrestrial Mammals on Oceanic Islands

With respect to the absence of birds and mammals on oceanic islands, Mr. St. Vincent remarked that the same facts (frogs, toads, etc.) are found on any of the many islands with which the great oceans are dotted. It is a fact that the same is asserted, and is a fact true, with the exception

tion of New Zealand New Caledonia the Andaman Islands and perhaps the Solomon Islands and the Seychelle But I have already remarked that it is doubtful whether New Zealand and New Caledonia ought to be classed as oceanic islands and this is still more doubtful with respect to the Andaman and Solomon groups and the Seychelles This general absence of frogs toads and newts on so many true oceanic islands cannot be accounted for by their physical conditions indeed it seems that islands are peculiarly fitted for these animals for frogs have been introduced into Madeira the Azores and Mauritius and have multiplied so as to become a nuisance But as this animal and their pawn are immediately killed (with the exception as far as known of one Indian species) by sea water there would be great difficulty in their transportal across the sea, and therefore we can see why they do not exist on strictly oceanic islands But why on the theory of creation they should not have been created there it would be very difficult to explain

Mammals offer another and similar case I have carefully searched the oldest voyages and have not found a single instance free from doubt of a terrestrial mammal (excluding domesticated animals kept by the natives) inhabiting an island situated above 300 miles from a continent or great continental island and many islands situated at a much less distance are equally barren The Falkland Islands which are inhabited by a wolf like fox come nearest to an exception but this group cannot be considered as oceanic as it lies on a bank in connection with the mainland at the distance of about 280 miles moreover icebergs formerly brought boulders to its western

island will not support at least small mammals, for they occur in many parts of the world on very small islands when lying close to a continent and hardly an island can be named on which our smaller quadrupeds have not become naturalized and greatly multiplied It cannot be said on the ordinary view of creation that there has not been time for the creation of mammals many volcanic islands are sufficiently ancient, as shown by the stupendous degradation which they have suffered and by their tertiary strata there has also been time for the production of certain species belonging to other classes and on continents it is

known that new species of mammals appear and disappear at a quicker rate than other and lower animals Although terrestrial mammals do not occur on oceanic islands, aerial mammals do occur on almost every island New Zealand possesses two bats found nowhere else in the world Norfolk Island the Viti Archipelago the Bonin Islands the Caroline and Marianne Archipelagoes and Mauritius, all possess their peculiar bats Why it may be asked has the supposed creative force produced bats and no other mammals on remote islands On my view this question can easily be answered for no terrestrial mammal can be transported across a wide space of sea, but bats can fly across Bats have been seen wandering by day far over the Atlantic Ocean and two North American species either regularly or occasionally visit Bermuda, at the distance of 600 miles from the mainland I hear from Mr. Tomes who has specially studied this family that many species have enormous ranges and are found on continents and on far distant islands Hence we have only to suppose that such wandering species have been modified in their new homes in relation to their new position and we can understand the presence of endemic bats on oceanic islands with the absence of all other terrestrial mammals.

inhabitants Mr Windsor Earl has made some striking observations on this head since greatly extended by Mr Wallace's admirable researches in regard to the great Malay Archipelago which is traversed near Celebes by a space of deep ocean and thus separates two widely distinct mammalian faunas. On either side the islands stand on a moderately shallow submarine bank and these islands are inhabited

instance Britain is separated by a shallow channel from Europe and the mammals are the same on both sides and so it is with all the islands near the shores of Australia. The West Indian Islands on the other hand stand on a deeply submerged bank nearly 1000 fathoms in depth and here we find American forms but the peculiar and even the genera are quite distinct As the amount of modification which animals of all kinds undergo partly depends on

GEOGRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION

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the lapse of time, and as the islands which are separated from each other from the main land by shallow channels, are more like the latter continuously united with it a recent period than the islands separated by deeper channels, we can understand it well that a relation exists between the depth of the sea separating two mammalian faunas, and the degree of their affinity — relation which is quite inexplicable in the theory of independent acts of creation.

The foregoing statements regard the inhabitants of oceanic islands. — namely the faunas of the species, with large proportion consisting of endemics, — the members of certain groups, but not those of the group in the same class, have been modified, — the absence of certain whole orders, as of batrachians and of terrestrial mammals, notwithstanding the presence of aerial bats, — the singular proportions of certain orders of plants, — herbaceous forms having been developed into trees, &c., — seem to me to accord better with the belief in the efficacy of occasional means of transport, carried during a long course of time, than with the belief in the former connection of all oceanic islands with the nearest continent. In this latter view it is probable that the various classes would have immigrated more uniformly and from the species have entered in a more mutual relations would thus have been undisturbed, and consequently they would either have not been modified, all the species in more equal manner.

while the still retain the same specific form or subsequently modified, have reached their present homes. But the probability that the islands having once existed as halting places, of which the wreck now remains, must not be overlooked. I will specify a difficult case. Almost all oceanic islands, in the most isolated, and smallest, are inhabited by land shells, generally by numerous species, but sometimes by species found elsewhere — striking instances of which have been given by D. A. G. in relation to the Pacific. Now it is noteworthy that land shells are easily killed by seawater, their eggs, the last such as I have tried sink in it and are killed. Yet they must be some unknown, but occasionally they are transported. Would they just hatched young sometimes adhere to the feet of

birds roosting on the ground and thus get transported. It occurred to me that land shells hibernating and having a mem-

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the sea. Out of the hundred shells, two I see no record. The presence of an peculiar one seems to have been of importance as that of two specimens of *Cyprina* *lucorum* which is the finished specimen. I have remarked seeing how well the *Helix pomata* resisted with me the salt water that it took of fifty specimens being used to for other species of *Helix* tried by a captain I have recorded. It is, however, that all probably that land shells have often been transported the feet of birds of a more probable method.

Of the Relations of the Inhabitants of Islands to those of the nearest Mainland

The most striking and important fact for us is the affinity of the species which inhabit islands to those of the nearest mainland, with out-

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between 400 and 600 miles from the shores of South America. It is almost entirely produced of the land and the water bears the unmistakable stamp of the American continent. There are twenty-six land birds of these twenty-one, perhaps twenty-three are ranked as distinct species, and would commonly be assumed to have been here created by the close affinity of most of these birds to American species is manifest in every character in their habits, gestures, and tones of voice. So that

is with the other animals and with a large proportion of the plants as shown by Dr Hooker in his admirable *Flora* of this archipelago. The naturalist looking at it

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American land. Why should this be so? Why should the species which are supposed to have been created in the Galapagos Archipelago and now

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geographical nature of the islands in their height or climate or in the proportions in which the several classes are associated together which closely resembles the conditions of the South American coast in fact there is a considerable dissimilarity in all these respects. On the other hand there is a considerable degree of resemblance in the volcanic nature of the soil in the climate height and size of the islands between the Galapagos and Cape Verde Archipelagos but what an entire and absolute difference in their inhabitants! The inhabitants of the Cape Verde Islands are related to those of Africa like those of the Galapagos to America. Facts such as these admit of no sort of explanation on the ordinary view of independent creation whereas on the view here maintained it is obvious that the Galapagos Islands would be likely to receive colonists from America whether by occasional means of transport or (though I do not believe in this doctrine) by formerly continuous land and the Cape Verde Islands from Africa such colonists would be liable to modification—the principle of inheritance still betraying their original birthplace.

Many analogous facts could be given in deed it is an almost universal rule that the endemic productions of islands are related to those of the nearest continent or of the nearest large island. The exceptions are few and most of them can be explained. Thus although Kerguelen Land stands nearer to Africa than to America the plants are related and that very closely as we know from Dr Hooker's account to those of America but on the view that this island has been mainly stocked by seeds brought with earth and stones on icebergs drifted by the prevailing currents, this anomaly disappears. New Zealand in its endemic planes is much more closely related to Australia, the nearest mainland than to any other region and this is what might have been expected but it is also plainly related to South

America which although the next nearest continent is so enormously remote that the fact becomes an anomaly. But this difficulty partially disappears on the view that New Zealand South America, and the other southern lands have been stocked in part from a nearly intermediate though distant point namely from the antarctic islands when they were clothed with vegetation during a warmer tertiary period before the commencement of the last Glacial period. The affinity which though feeble I am assured by Dr Hooker is real between the flora of the south western corner of Australia and of the Cape of Good Hope is a far more remarkable case but this affinity is confined to the plants, and will no doubt some day be explained.

The same law which has determined the relationship between the inhabitants of islands and the nearest mainland is sometimes displayed on a small scale but in a most interesting manner within the limits of the same archipelago. Thus each separate island of the Galapagos Archipelago is tenanted and the fact is a marvellous one by many different species but these species are related to each other in a very much closer manner than to the inhabitants of the American continent or of any other quarter of the world. This is what might have been expected for islands situated so near to each other would almost necessarily receive immigrants from the same original source and from each other. But how is it that many of the immigrants have been differently modified though only in a small degree in islands situated within sight of each other having the same geological nature the same height climate &c? This long appeared to me a great difficulty but

other species with which each has to compete is at least as important, and generally a far more important element of success. Now if we look to the species which inhabit the Galapagos Archipelago and are like we found in other parts of the world we find that they differ considerably in the several islands. This difference might indeed have been expected if the islands had been stocked by occasional means of transport—a seed for instance of one plant having been brought to one island and that of another plant to another island though all proceeding from the same general source. Hence when in former

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times an immigrant first settled on one of the islands, or when it subsequently spread from one to another it would undoubtedly be exposed to different conditions in the different islands, for it would have to compete with different sets of organisms—plant, for instance, would find the ground best fitted for it occupied by somewhat different species in the different islands, and would be exposed to the attacks of somewhat different nemesis. If then it varied, natural selection would probably favour different varieties in the different islands. Some species, however, might spread and yet retain the same character throughout the group, just as we see some species spread throughout the continent and remain the same.

The really surprising fact in this case of the Galapagos Archipelago, and in a lesser degree in some analogous cases, is that each new species after being formed in any one island, did not spread quickly to the other islands. But the islands, though in sight of each other are separated by deep arms of the sea, in most cases wider than the British Channel, and there is no reason to suppose that they have at any form period been continually united. The currents of the sea are rapid and sweep between the islands, and gales of wind are extraordinarily rare so that the islands are far more effectually separated from each other than they appear on a map. Nevertheless some of the species, both of those found in other parts of the world and of those confined to the archipelago, are common to the several islands and we may infer from their present manner of distribution, that they have spread from one island to the others. But we often take, I think, an erroneous view of the probability of closely allied species invading each other's territory when put into free intercommunication. Undoubtedly if one species has an advantage over another it will in every brief time wholly or in part supplant it, but if both are equally well fitted for their own places, both will probably hold their separate places for almost any length of time. Being familiar with the fact that many species, naturalised through man's agency have spread with astonishing rapidity over vast areas, we are apt to infer that most species would thus spread but we should remember that the species which become naturalised in new countries are not generally closely allied to the accidental inhabitants, but are very distinct forms, belonging to a large proportion of cases, as shown by Alph. d. Can-

did to distinct genera. In the Galapagos Archipelago, many of the birds, though so well adapted for flying from island to island, differ on the different islands, thus there are three closely allied species of mocking thrush, each confined to its own island. Now let us suppose the mocking thrush of Chatham Island to be blown to Charles Island, which has its own mocking thrush, which would succeed in establishing itself there. We may safely infer that Charles Island would be stocked with its own species, for annually more eggs are laid and young birds hatched, than can possibly be reared and we may infer that the mocking thrush peculiar to Charles Island is at least as well fitted for its home as is the species peculiar to Chatham Island. So C. L. Ill and M. Wollaston have communicated to me a remarkable fact bearing on this subject, namely that *Madra* and the adjacent island of Porto Santo possess many distinct bird representations of species of land shells, some of which have more species of the same and although large quantities of them are annually transported from Porto Santo to Madra, the latter island has not become colonised by the Porto Santo species, neither does both island have been colonised by European land shells, which doubtless would have been introduced. From these considerations it follows we need not greatly marvel at the endemic peculiarities which inhabit the several islands of the Galapagos Archipelago, not having all spread from island to island. On the same subject, also, preoccupation has probably played an important part in checking the communication of the species which inhabit different districts with nearly the same physical conditions. Thus, the south-east and so the west corners of Australia have nearly the same physical conditions, and are united by continuous land, yet they are inhabited by a multitude of distinct mammals, birds, and plants, so it is, according to Mr Bates, with the butterflies and other animals inhabiting the great, open, and continuous alley of the Amazons.

The same principle which governs the general character of the inhabitants of oceanic islands, namely the relation to the source whence colonists could have been most easily derived, it holds with their subsequent modification, is of the widest application throughout nature. We see this in every mountain summit, in every lake and marsh. Few Alpine species, except in as far as the same species have become widely spread during the Glacial

epoch are related to those of the surrounding lowlands thus we have in South America Alpine humming birds Alpine rodents Alpine plants &c all strictly belonging to American forms and it is obvious that a mountain as it became slowly upheaved would be colonised from the surrounding lowlands So it is with the inhabitants of lakes and marshes excepting in so far as great facility of transport has allowed the same forms to prevail throughout large portions of the world We see this same principle in the character of most of the blind animals inhabiting the caves of America and of Europe Other analogous facts could be given It will I believe be found universally true that wherever in two regions let them be ever so distant many closely allied or representative species occur there will likewise be found some identical species and wherever many closely allied species occur there will be found many forms which some naturalists rank as distinct species and others as mere varieties these doubtful forms showing us the steps in the progress of modification

The relation between the power and extent of migration in certain species either at the present or at some former period and the existence at remote points of the world of closely allied species is shown in another and more general way Mr Gould remarked to me long ago that in those genera of birds which range over the world many of the species have very wide ranges I can hardly doubt that this rule is generally true though difficult of proof

Amongst mammals we see it strikingly displayed in bats and in a lesser degree in the Felidae and Canidae We see the same rule in the distribution of butterflies and beetles So it is with most of the inhabitants of fresh water for many of the genera in the most distinct classes range over the world and many of the species have enormous ranges It is not meant that all but that some of the species have very wide range in the genera which range very widely Nor is it meant that the species in such genera have on an average a very wide range for this will largely depend on how far the process of modification has gone for instance two varieties of the same species inhabit America and Europe and thus the species has an immense range but if variation were to be carried a little further the two varieties would be ranked as distinct species and their range would be greatly reduced Still less is it meant that species which have the capacity of crossing barriers and ranging

widely as in the case of certain powerfully winged birds will necessarily range widely for we should never forget that to range widely implies not only the power of crossing barriers but the more important power of being victorious in distant lands in the struggle for life with foreign associates But according to the view that all the species of a genus, though distributed to the most remote points of the world are descended from a single progenitor we ought to find and I believe as a general rule we do find that some at least of the species range very widely

We should bear in mind that many genera in all classes are of ancient origin, and the species in this case will have had ample time for dispersal and subsequent modification There is also reason to believe from geological evidence that within each great class the lower organisms change at a slower rate than the higher consequently they will have had a better chance of ranging widely and of still retaining the same specific character This fact together with that of the seeds and eggs of most lowly organised forms being very minute and better fitted for distant transport probably accounts for a law which has long been observed and which has lately been discussed by Alph de Candolle in regard to plants, namely that the lower any group of organisms stands the more widely it ranges

The relations just discussed — namely lower organisms ranging more widely than the higher — some of the species of widely ranging genera themselves ranging widely — such facts, as Alpine lacustrine and marsh productions being generally related to those which live on the surrounding lowlands and dry lands — the striking relationship between the inhabitants of islands and those of the nearest mainland — the still closer relationship of the distinct inhabitants of the islands in the same archipelago — are inexplicable on the ordinary view of the independent creation of each species but are explicable if we suppose that the nearest the subsequent — their new homes

Summary of the last and present Chapters

In the chapters I have endeavoured to show that if we make due allowance for our ignorance of the full effects of changes of climate and of the level of the land which have certainly occurred within the recent period,

other source whence immigrants might have been derived. We can see why, if there exists very closely allied or representative species in two areas, however distant from each other, some identical species will almost always there be found.

As the late Edward Forbes often insisted, there is a striking parallelism in the laws of life throughout time and space: the laws governing the succession of forms in time being

the same at the same place in different areas, and the laws governing the succession of forms in space being the same in many facts of the continuousness of the rule.

It is so with that they may fairly be attributed to our not having as yet discovered in an intermediate deposit certain forms which are absent in it, but which occur both above and below; so in space it certainly is the general rule that the area inhabited by a single species, or by a group of species, is continuous, and the exceptions which are not rare may, as I have attempted to show, be accounted for by former migrations under different circumstances, or through occasional means of transport, or by the species having become extinct in the

intermediate tracts. Both in time and space, species and group of near kind are points of species, or living forms, the same area.

In looking to distant provinces throughout the world, we find that species in certain classes differ little from each other, whilst those in another class, or only in a different section of the same order, differ greatly from each other. In both time and space the slowly organised members of each class generally change less than the highly organised; but there are in both cases marked exceptions to the rule. According to our theory, these several relations throughout time and space are intelligible, for whether we look to the allied forms of life which have changed during successive ages, or to those which have changed after having migrated into distant quarters, in both cases they are connected by the same bond of ordinary generation; in both cases the laws of variation have been the same, and modifications have been accumulated by the same means of natural selection.

CHAPTER XIV

MUTUAL AFFINITIES OF ORGANIC BEINGS MORPHOLOGY EMBRYOLOGY RUDIMENTARY ORGANS

Classification

From the most remote period the history of the world organic beings have been found to resemble each other in descending degrees, so that they can be classed in groups and ranges. This classification is not arbitrary like the grouping of the stars in constellations. The existence of groups would have been sufficiently indicated if the groups had been exclusively fitted to inhabit the land and another the water to feed on flesh, and the range of plants and so on but the case is widely different, if the terrestrial communities members of the same subgroup differ in habits. In the second and following chapters, Variations and Natural Selection, I attempted to show with what each country is the widely ranging the much diffused and common, that is the dominant species, belonging to the larger genera in each class, which are most characteristic, incipient species, thus produced ultimately become converted to new and distinct species and these with principle of inheritance, tend to produce the new and dominant species. Consequently the groups which are new large, and which contain all included many dominant species, tend to grow in increasing size I further attempted to show with the varying descendants of each species trying to occupy as many new as different places as possible in the economy of nature, they constantly tend to develop new character. This latter conclusion is supported by observations of the great diversity of form which, in a small area, come into the closest competition, and by certain facts in natural history.

I attempted also to show with the result as a steady tendency in the form which increases in number and diverging in character to the plant and the minute the preceding classes of organisms and I am prepared to request the reader to turn to the diagrams illustrating the action, as far as I explained of these several principles and he will see that the final result is, that the modified descendants proceed from the progenitor to become broken up into groups subordinate to groups. In the diagrams illustrating the process

process the lines represent a genealogical

in common. But the three genera are not hand in hand, on the same principle much in common, and forming a family distinct from that right

three generations till farth the right hand will be got to an early period. And all

from its familiarity does not always sufficiently take us as a my judgment at the explained. No doubt organic beings, like all other objects, can be classed in many ways, either artificially by their characters, or more naturally by a number of characters. We know for instance, that the minerals and the chemical substances can be thus arranged. In this case the result is of course no latent general success and nature cannot present be assigned of the falling into groups. But with organic beings the case is different, the division will be in accordance with their natural arrangement in groups and groups and no other explanation has ever been attempted.

Naturalists, as we have seen, try to arrange the species, genera, and families in each class, which is called the Natural System. But what is meant by this system? Some of us look at them only as scientific arrangements to

— that is, by sentence to give the character

ters common for instance to all mammal by another those common to all carnivora, by another those common to the dog genus, and then by adding a single sentence a full description is given of each kind of dog. The ingenuity and utility of this system are indisputable. But many naturalists think that something more is meant by the Natural System: they believe that it reveals the plan of the Creator: but unless it be specified whether or in time or place or both or what else is meant by the plan of the Creator it seems to me that nothing is thus added to our knowledge. Expressions such as that famous one by Linnæus which we often meet with in a more or less concealed form: namely that the characters do not make the genus but that the genus gives the characters seem to imply that some deeper bond is included in our classifications than mere resemblance. I believe that this is the case and that community of descent—the one known cause of close similarity in organic beings—is the bond which though observed by various degrees of modification is partially revealed to us by our classifications.

Let us now consider the rules followed in classification and the difficulties which are encountered on the view that classification either gives some unknown plan of creation or is simply a scheme for enunciating general propositions and of placing together the forms most like each other. It might have been thought (and was in ancient times thought) that those parts of the structure which determined the habits of life and the general place of each being in the economy of nature would be of very high importance in classification. Nothing can be more false. No one regards the external similarity of a mouse to a shrew or of a dugong to a whale or of a whale to a fish as of any importance. These resemblances though so intimately connected with the whole life of the being are ranked as merely adaptive or analogical characters: but to the consideration of these resemblances we shall recur. It may even be given as a general rule that the less any part of the organisation is concerned with special habits the more important it becomes for

character. With plants how remarkable it is that the organs of vegetation, on which their nutrition and life depend are of little significance whereas the organs of reproduction, with their product the seed and embryo, are of paramount importance! So again in formerly discussing certain morphological characters which are not functionally important, we have seen that they are often of the highest service in classification. This depends on their constancy throughout many allied groups and their constancy chiefly depends on any slight deviations not having been preserved and accumulated by natural selection which acts only on serviceable characters.

That the mere physiological importance of an organ does not determine its classificatory value is almost proved by the fact that in allied groups in which the same organ as we have every reason to suppose has nearly the same physiological value its classificatory value is widely different. No naturalist can have worked long at any group without being struck with this fact and it has been fully acknowledged in the writings of almost every author. It will suffice to quote the highest authority Robert Brown who in speaking of certain organs in the Proteaceæ says their generic importance like that of all their parts,

other work he says, the genera of the Connaraceæ differ in having one or more ovaries, in the existence or absence of albumen in the imbricate or valvular aestivation. Any one of these characters singly is frequently of more than generic importance though here even when all taken together they appear insufficient to separate *Cnestus* from *Connarus*. To give an example amongst insects in one great division of the Hymenoptera the antennæ, as Westwood has remarked are most constant in structure in another division they differ much and the differences are of quite subordinate value in classification yet no one will say that the antennæ in these two divisions of the same order are of unequal physiological importance. Any number of instances could be given of the varying importance for classification of the same important organ within the same group of beings.

Again, no one will say that rudimentary or atrophied organs are of high physiological or vital importance yet, undoubtedly organs in this condition are often of much value in clas-

lated to the habits and food of an animal. I have always regarded as affording very clear indications of its true affinities. We are least likely in the modifications of these organs to mistake a merely adaptive for an essential

showed. No one will dispute that the rudimentary teeth in the upper jaws of young mammals, and certain rudimentary bones of the leg, are highly serviceable in climbing, though close affinity between ruminants and pachyderms. Robert Brown has strongly insisted on the fact that the position of the rudimentary scrota is of the highest importance in the classification of the grasses.

Numerous instances could be given of characters derived from parts which must be considered of very trifling physiological importance, but which are universally admitted as highly serviceable in the definition of whole groups. For instance whether or not there is an opening from the nostrils to the mouth, the one character according to Owen, which accurately distinguishes fishes and reptiles—the direction of the angle of the lower jaw in mammals—the manner in which the wings of insects are folded—mere colour in certain Algae—mere pubescence on parts of the flower in grasses—the nature of the dorsal covering, as hair or feathers, in the Vertebrata. If the Ornithomyces had been covered with feathers instead of hair this external and trifling character would have been considered by naturalists as an important aid in determining the degree of affinity of this strange creature to birds.

The importance for classification, of trifling characters, mainly depends on their being correlated with many other characters of more or less importance. The value indeed of an aggregate of characters is very variable in natural history. Hence, as has often been remarked, a species may depart from its allies in several characters, both of high physiological importance, and of almost universal prevalence and extent as in no doubt where it should be ranked. Hence also, it has been found that a classification founded on an angle character however important that may be, has always failed for no part of the organisation is in a nearly constant. The importance of an aggregate of characters, even when none are important, alone explains the phorism suggested by Linnaeus, namely that the characters do not give the genus, but the genus gives the characters for this seems founded on the perception of many trifling points of resemblance, too slight to be defined. Certain plants, belonging to the Malpighiaceae, bear perfect and degraded flowers in the latter as A. de Jussieu has remarked. The greater number of the characters proper to the species, to the genus, to the family to the class, disappear and

and yet M. Richard sagaciously saw as Jussieu observes, that this genus should still be retained amongst the Malpighiaceae. This case well illustrates the spirit of our classifications.

Practically when naturalists are at work, they do not trouble themselves about the physiological value of the characters which they use in defining a group or in allocating any particular species. If they find a character nearly uniform, and common to a great number of forms, and not common to others, they use it as one of high value if common to some lesser number they use it as of subordinal value. This principle has been broadly confessed by some naturalists to be true and by none more clearly than by that excellent botanist, August de Saint-Hilaire. If several distinguishing characters are always found in combination though no apparent bond of connection can be discovered between them, especial value is set on them. As in most groups of animals, important organs, such as those for propelling the blood or for swimming, or those for propagating the race are found nearly uniform, they are considered as highly serviceable in classification but in some organs all these, the most important vital organs, are found to differ characters of just subordinal value. Thus, as Fritz Müller has lately remarked, in the same group of crustaceans, Cypridina is furnished with a heart, whilst in two closely allied genera, namely Cypris and Cytherea, there is no such organ. One species of Cypridina has well developed branchiae whilst another species is destitute of them.

We can see why characters derived from the embryo should be of equal importance with those derived from the adult, for a natural classification of course includes all ages. But it is by no means obvious, on the ordinary view, why the structure of the embryo should be more important for this purpose than that of the adult, which alone parts its full part in the economy of nature. Yet it has been strongly urged by those great naturalists, Milne Edwards and Agassiz, that embryological characters are the most important of all and this doctrine has very generally been admitted as true. Nevertheless, their importance has sometimes been exaggerated, owing to the adaptive

characters of larvæ not having been excluded in order to show this. Fritz Muller arranged by the aid of such characters alone the great class of crustaceans and the arrangement did not prove a natural one. But there can be no doubt that embryonic excluding larval characters are of the highest value for classification not only with animals but with plants. Thus the main divisions of flowering plants are founded on differences in the embryo — on the number and position of the cotyledons and on the mode of development of the plumule and radicle. We shall immediately see why these characters possess so high a value in classification namely from the natural system being genealogical in its arrangement.

Our classifications are often plainly influenced by chains of affinities. Nothing can be easier than to define a number of characters common to all birds but with crustaceans any such definition has hitherto been found impossible. There are crustaceans at the opposite ends of the series which have hardly a character in common yet the species at both ends from being plainly allied to others and these to others and so onwards can be recognised as unequivocally belonging to this and to no other class of the Articulata.

Geographical distribution has often been used though perhaps not quite logically in classification more especially in very large groups of closely allied forms. Temminck insists on the utility or even necessity of this practice in certain groups of birds and it has been followed by several entomologists and botanists.

Finally with respect to the comparative value of the various groups of species such as orders sub-orders families sub-families and genera, they seem to be at least at present almost arbitrary. Several of the best botanists such as Mr. Bentham and others have strongly insisted on their arbitrary value. Instances could be given among plants and insects of a group first ranked by practised naturalists as only a genus, and then raised to the rank of a sub-family or family and this has been done, not because further research has detected important structural differences at first overlooked but because numerous allied species with slightly different grades of difference have been subsequently discovered.

All the foregoing rules and aids and difficulties in classification may be explained if I do not greatly deceive myself on the view that the Natural System is founded on descent

with modification — that the characters which naturalists consider as showing true affinity between any two or more species, are those which have been inherited from a common parent all true classification being genealogical — that community of descent is the hidden bond which naturalists have been unconsciously seeking and not some unknown plan of creation or the enunciation of general propositions and the mere putting together and separating objects more or less alike.

But I must explain my meaning more fully. I believe that the arrangement of the groups within each class in due subordination and relation to each other must be strictly genealogical in order to be natural but that the amount of difference in the several branches or groups though allied in the same degree in blood to their common progenitor may differ greatly being due to the different degrees of modification which they have undergone and this is expressed by the forms being ranked under different genera, families, sections, or orders. The reader will best understand what is meant if he will take the trouble to refer to the diagram in the fourth chapter. We will suppose the letters f to l .

Let us suppose that f and l a species has transmitted modified descendants to the present day represented by the fifteen genera (a to o) on the uppermost horizontal line. Now all these modified descendants from a single species are related in blood or descent in the same degree they may metaphorically be called cousins to the same millionth degree yet they differ widely and in different degrees from each other. The forms descended from f now broken up into two or three families, constitute a distinct order from those descended from l also broken up into two families. Now can the existing species descended from f be ranked in the same genus with the parent f or those from l with the parent l ? But the existing genus f may be supposed to have been but slightly modified and it will then rank with the parent genus f just as some few still living organisms belong to Silurian genera. So that the comparative value of the differences between these organic beings which are all related to each other in the same degree in blood has come to be widely different. Nevertheless their genealogical arrangement remains strictly true not only at the present time but at each successive period of descent.

All the modified descendants from *I* will have inherited something in common from their common parent, as will all the descendants from *I* so will it be with each subordinate branch of descendants, at each successive stage. If however we suppose any descendant of *I*, or of *I* to have become so much modified as to have lost all traces of its parentage in this case, its place in the natural system will be lost, as seems to have occurred with some of the existing organisms. All the descendants of the genus *P* along its whole line of descent, are supposed to have been but little modified, and therefore single genus *B* thus grouping, though much isolated, will still occupy its proper intermediate position. The representation of the groups, as here given in the diagram on a flat surface is much too simple. The branches ought to have diverged in all directions. If the names of the groups had been simply written down in a linear series, the representation would have been still less natural and it is notoriously not possible to represent in series, on flat surface the affinities which we discover in nature amongst the beings of the same group. Thus, the Natural System is genealogical in its arrangement, like a pedigree but the amount of modification which the different groups have undergone has to be expressed by ranking them under different so-called genera, sub-families, families, sections, orders, and classes.

It may be worth while to illustrate this new classification, by taking the case of languages. If we possessed perfect pedigree of mankind, a genealogical arrangement of the races of man would afford the best classification of the various languages now spoken throughout the world and of all extinct languages, and all intermediate and slowly changing dialects. We must be included such an arrangement would be the only possible one. Yet it might be that some ancient languages had altered very little and had given rise to few new languages, whilst others had altered much more, to the spreading, isolation, and state of civilisation of the several co-descended races, and had thus given rise to many new dialects and languages. The various degrees of difference between the languages of the same stock, would have to be expressed by groups subordinate to groups but the proper representation of the only possible arrangement would still be genealogical and this would be strictly natural, as it would connect together all languages, extinct and recent, by the closest af-

finities, and would give the filiation and rank of each tongue.

In confirmation of this view let us glance at the classification of varieties, which are known

believed to be descended from a single species. These are grouped under the species, with the varieties under the varieties and in some cases, as with the domestic pigeon, with several third gradings if difference. Nearly the same rules are followed as in classifying species. Authors have insisted on the necessity of arranging varieties in natural instead of an artificial system where are cautioned for instance not to classify two varieties of the pineapple together in relation because the fruit, though the most important part, happens to be nearly identical notwithstanding the Swedish and common turnip together though the esculent and thickened stems are so similar. Whatever part is found to be most constant, is used in classifying varieties thus the great agriculturist Marshall says the horns are very useful for this purpose with cattle because they are less variable than the shape or colour of the body &c. whereas with sheep the horns are much less serviceable because less constant. In classifying varieties, I apprehend that if we had a real pedigree a genealogical classification would be universally preferred and has been attempted in some cases. For we might feel sure, whether there had been more or less modification, that the principle of inheritance would keep the forms together which were allied in the great number of points. In tumbler pigeons, though some of the sub-varieties differ in the important character of the length of the beak, yet all are kept together from having the common habit of tumbling but the short-faced breed has nearly a quite lost this habit nevertheless, without any thought on the subject, these tumblers are kept in the same group, because allied in blood and alike in some respects.

With species in a state of nature, however, naturalist has in fact brought descent into his classification for he includes in his lowest grade that of species, the two sexes and how enormous these sometimes differ in the most important characters, is known to every naturalist scarcely single fact can be predicated in common of the adult males and hermaphrodites of certain arthropods, and it is no one dreams of separating them. As soon as the three orchids, *Monachanthus*, *Myanthis*, and *Catasetum*, which had previously been ranked as three distinct genera, were

known to be sometimes produced on the same plant they were immediately considered as varieties and now I have been able to show that they are the male female and hermaphrodite forms of the same species. The naturalist includes as one species the various larval stages of the same individual however much they may differ from each other and from the adult as well as the so-called alternate generations of Steenstrup which can only in a technical sense be considered as the same individual. He includes monsters and varieties not from their partial resemblance to the parent form but because they are descended from it.

As descent has universally been used in classing together the individuals of the same species though the males and females and larvae are sometimes extremely different and as it has been used in classing varieties which have undergone a certain and sometimes a considerable amount of modification may not this same element of descent have been unconsciously used in grouping species under genera and genera under higher groups all under the so-called natural system? I believe it has been unconsciously used and thus only can I understand the several rules and guides which have been followed by our best systematists. As we have no written pedigrees we are forced to trace community of descent by resemblances of any kind. Therefore we chose those characters which are the least likely to have been modified in relation to the conditions of life to which each species has been recently exposed. Rudimentary structures on this view are as good as or even better than other parts of the organisation. We care not how trifling a character may be—let it be the mere inflection of the angle of the jaw the manner in which an insect wing is folded whether the skin be covered by hair or feathers—if it prevail throughout many and different species, especially those having very different habits of life it assumes high value for we can account for its presence in so many forms with such different habits only by inheritance from a common parent. We may err in this respect in regard to single points of structure but when several characters let them be ever so trifling concur throughout a large group of beings having different habits we may feel almost sure on the theory of descent that these characters have been inherited from a common ancestor and we know that such aggregated characters have especial value in classification.

We can understand why a species or a group

of species may depart from its allies in several of its most important characteristics and yet be safely classed with them. This may be safely done and is often done as long as a sufficient number of characters let them be ever so unimportant betrays the hidden bond of community of descent. Let two forms have not a single character in common yet if these extreme forms are connected together by a chain of intermediate groups we may at once infer their community of descent, and we put them all into the same class. As we find organs of high physiological importance—those which serve to preserve life under the most diverse conditions of existence—are generally the most constant we attach especial value to them but if these same organs in another group or section of a group are found to differ much we at once value them less in our classification. We shall presently see why embryological characters are of such high classification.

from the same parents

Analogical Resemblances—We can understand on the above views the very important distinction between real affinities and analogical or adaptive resemblances. Lamarck first called attention to this subject and he has been ably followed by Macleay and others. The resemblance in the shape of the body and in the fin like anterior limbs between dugongs and whales and between these two orders of mammals and fishes are analogical. So is the resemblance between a mouse and a shrew mouse (*Sorex*) which belong to different orders and the still closer resemblance insisted on by Mr. Mivart between the mouse and a small marsupial animal (*Antechinus*) of Australia. These latter resemblances may be accounted for as it seems to me by adaptation for similarly active movements through thickets and herbage together with concealment from enemies.

Amongst insects there are innumerable similar instances thus Linnaeus misled by external appearances actually classed an homopterous insect as a moth. We see something of the same kind even with our domestic varieties as in the strikingly similar shape of the body in the improved breeds of the Cl in se and common pig which are descended from distinct species and in the similarly thickened stems of the

MUTUAL AFFINITIES OF ORGANIC BEINGS

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common and specifically distinct Swedish turnip. The resemblance between the greyhound and the raccoon is hardly more fanciful than the analogy which has been drawn by some authors between widely different animals.

On the view of characters being of relative importance for classification, only in so far as they are of descent, we can hardly understand why analogical or adaptive characters of the highest importance to the welfare of the being are almost altogether systematic. For animals, belonging to the most distinct line of descent, may have become adapted to similar conditions, and thus have assumed a close external resemblance but whose resemblances will not really attest the descent to conceal the blood relationship. We can then understand the apparent paradox that the very same characters are analogical when groups compared with an entirely different affinity, while the members of the same group are compared together. Thus, the shape of the body and the like limbs are only analogical when whales are compared with fishes, being adaptive in both classes for swimming through the water. But between the seal and the members of the whale family the shape of the body and the like limbs of characters exhibiting true affinity for as the same parts are so early similar through the whole family we cannot doubt that they have been inherited from common ancestors. So it is with fish.

Numerous cases could be given of striking

animals which are widely undeviating in their natural system. But the resemblance is common

properly understood in the same way as the relationship of the Thylacine has three parallel lines. The same line also differs in the character of the animals related and true to the adult. It is preceded by a widely different milk diet. Any enemy would deny that the teeth in the case have been adapted for tearing flesh through the natural selection of necessity arising but the fact is admitted in the case of the ungulate to

me that it should be denied in the other. I am glad to find that so high an authority as Professor Flower has come to this same conclusion.

The extraordinary cases given in a former chapter of widely different fishes possess electrical organs,—of widely different insects possess gum-nose organs,—and of related and adapted having pollen masses with similar structure come under the same head of analogy.

cases some fundamental difference in the general order of the parts, and generally in the matured structure can be detected. Though the difference is the same but it means, though appearing so perfectly to be the more essentially different. The principle is merely alluded to under the term of *irregularity* has probably in the same

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tances,—to inhabit, for instance the three elements of land and water.—we can perhaps understand with a numerical parallelism has some common observed between the biological classes. A naturalist, struck with a parallelism of the nature by arbitrarily raising or making the same of the groups in several classes (and all our experience with the relation as a tributary) could easily tend to parallelism everywhere and the the septenary quaternary quaternary and ternary classification has probably arisen.

Though the same and the same as in which the same resemblance does not depend on adaptive nature to the same habits. If it has been gained for the sake of protection. I allude to the word of the same in which certain butterflies imitate as first described by Mr. Bates, the and quite distinct. This cell to observe has shown that in some distinct cases in the same, where for instance an

Ithomia abounds in gaudy swarms another butterfly namely a *Leptalis*, is often found mingled in the same flock and the latter so closely resembles the *Ithomia* in every shade and stripe of colour and even in the shape of its wings that Mr Bates with his eyes sharpened by collecting during eleven years was though always on his guard continually deceived. When the mockers and the mocked are caught and compared they are found to be very different in essential structure and to belong not only to distinct genera but often to distinct families. Had this mimicry occurred in

imitates an *Ithomia* another mocking and mocked species belonging to the same two genera equally close in their resemblance may be found. Altogether no less than ten genera are enumerated which include species that imitate other butterflies. The mockers and mocked always inhabit the same region we never find an imitator living remote from the form which it imitates. The mockers are almost invariably rare insects the mocked in almost every case abound in swarms. In the same district in which a species of *Leptalis* closely imitates an *Ithomia* there are sometimes other *Leptoptera* mimicking the same *Ithomia* so that in the same place species of three genera of butterflies and even a moth are found all closely resembling a butterfly belonging to a fourth genus. It deserves especial notice that many of the mimicking forms of the *Leptalis*, as well as of the mimicked forms, can be shown by a graduated series to be merely varieties of the same species whilst others are undoubtedly distinct species. But why it may be asked are certain forms treated as the mimicked and others as the mimickers? Mr Bates satisfactorily answers this question by showing that the form which is imitated keeps the usual dress of the group to which it belongs whilst the counterfeiters have changed their dress and do not resemble their nearest allies.

We are next led to inquire what reason can be assigned for certain butterflies and moths so often assuming the dress of another and quite distinct form why to the perplexity of naturalists has nature condescended to the tricks of the stage? Mr Bates has, no doubt, hit on the true explanation. The mocked form which always abound in numbers must habitually escape destruction to a large extent otherwise

they could not exist in such swarms and a large amount of evidence has now been collected showing that they are distasteful to birds and other insect-devouring animals. The mocking forms, on the other hand that inhabit the same district are comparatively rare and belong to rare groups hence they must suffer habitually from some danger for other wise from the number of eggs laid by all but females, they would in three or four generations swarm over the whole country. Now if a member of one of these persecuted and rare groups were to assume a dress so like that of a well-protected species that it continually deceived the practised eye of an entomologist, it would often deceive predaceous birds and insect

so closely to resemble the mimicked for he found that some of the forms of *Leptalis* which mimic so many other butterflies varied in an extreme degree. In one district several varieties occurred and of these one alone resembled to a certain extent the common *Ithomia* of the same district. In another district there were two or three varieties one of which was much commoner than the others and this closely mocked another form of *Ithomia*. From facts of this nature Mr Bates concludes that the *Leptalis* first varies and when a variety happens to resemble in some degree any common

and insect and is consequently oftener pre-

pelago and Africa and with some other insects. Mr Wallace has also detected one such case with birds but we have none with the larger quadrupeds. The much greater frequency of imitation with insects than with other animals is probably the consequence of their small size insects cannot defend themselves, excepting indeed the knifed with a sting and I have never heard of an instance of such kind. Mocking other insects though they are mocked insects cannot easily escape by flight from the

larger animals which prevail in them therefore speaking metaphorically they are reduced, like most weak creatures, to trickery and dissimulation.

It would be observed that the process of imitation probably never commenced between forms widely dissimilar in colour. But starting with species already somewhat like each other the closest resemblance, if beneficial, could readily be gained by the above means and if the imitated form was subsequently and gradually modified through any agency the imitating form would be led along the same track, and thus be altered to almost an extent, so that it might ultimately assume an appearance or colouring wholly unlike that of the other members of the family to which it belonged. There is, however, some difficulty on this head, for it is necessary to suppose in some cases that ancient members belonging to several distinct groups, before they had arrived to their present extent, accidentally resembled a member of another and protected group in sufficient degree to afford some slight protection. This has long been the basis for the subsequent acquisition of the most perfect resemblance.

On the Nature of the intimate connecting Organic Link. — As the modified descendants of dominant species, belonging to the larger genera, tend to subvert the advantages which made the groups to which they belong large and their parents dominant, they are almost sure to spread widely and to seize on more and more places in the economy of nature. The larger and more dominant groups within each class thus tend to go on increasing in size and they consequently supplant many smaller and feebler groups. Thus we can account for the fact that all organisms, recent and extinct, are included under a few great orders, and under still fewer classes. As showing how few the higher groups are in number and how widely they are spread throughout the world, the fact is striking that the discovery of Australia has not added an insect belonging to a new class and that in the vertebrate kingdom, as I learn from Dr Hocker, it has added only two or three families of small size.

In the chapter on Geological Succession I attempted to show on the principle of each group having generally diverged much in character during the long-continued process of modification, how it is that the more ancient forms of life often present characters in some degree intermediate between existing groups. As some few of the old and intermediate forms

have been transmitted to the present day descendants but little modified, these constitute our so-called *osculant* or *aberrant* species. The more aberrant the form is, the greater must be the number of connecting forms which have been exterminated and utterly lost. And we have some evidence of aberrant groups having suffered severely from extinction, for they are almost always represented by extremely few species and such species as do occur are generally very distinct from each other which again implies extinction. The genera *Ornithorhynchus* and *Lepidosaureus*, for example, would not have been less aberrant had each been represented by a dozen species, instead of as it is present by a single one or by two or three. We can, I think, account for this fact only by looking at aberrant groups as forms which have been conquered by more successful competitors, with a few members still preserved under unusual favourable conditions.

Mr Waterhouse has remarked that, when a member belonging to one group of animals exhibits an affinity to a quite distinct group, this affinity in most cases is general and not special thus, according to Mr Waterhouse, of all rodents, the *busacchia* is most nearly related to marsupials but in the points in which it approaches this order its relations are general, that is, not to any one marsupial species more than to another. As these points of affinity are believed to be real and not merely adaptive, they must be due in accordance with our view to inheritance from a common progenitor. Therefore we must suppose either that all rodents, including the *busacchia*, branched off from some ancient marsupial, which would naturally have been more or less intermediate in character with respect to all existing marsupials or that both rodents and marsupials branched off from a common progenitor and that both groups have since undergone much modification in different directions. On either view we must suppose that the *busacchia* has retained, by inheritance, more of the characters of its ancient progenitor than have other rodents and therefore it will not be specially related to any one existing marsupial, but indirectly to all or nearly all marsupials, from having partially retained the character of their common progenitor or of some early member of the group. On the other hand, of all marsupials, as Mr Waterhouse has remarked, the *Phascogaster* resembles most nearly not any one species, but the general order of rodents. In this case, however, it may

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or two instances it might have been passed over as a strange coincidence. But if we proceed from a district where one *Leptalis* imitates an *Ithomia* another mocking and mocked species, belonging to the same two genera equally close in their resemblance may be found. Altogether no less than ten genera are enumerated which include species that imitate other butterflies. The mockers and mocked always inhabit the same region; we never find an imitator living remote from the form which it imitates. The mockers are almost invariably rare insects; the mocked in almost every case abound in swarms. In the same district in which a species of *Leptalis* closely imitates an *Ithomia*.

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Mr Wallace and Mr Trimen have likewise described several equally striking cases of imitation in the Lepidoptera of the Malay Archipelago and Africa and with some other insects Mr Wallace has also detected one such case with birds but we have none with the larger quadrupeds. The much greater frequency of imitation with insects than with other animals is probably the consequence of their small size; insects cannot defend themselves excepting indeed the kind furnished with a sting and I have never heard of an

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perfect, genealogical in its arrangement, with the grades of difference pressed by the terms genera, families, orders, &c. we can understand the rules which we are compelled to follow in our classification. We are enabled to see by what a few certain resemblances far more than others, why we are ruled in our classification of organs, or orders of trifling physiological importance, why in finding the relations between one group and another we commonly reject analogical or adaptive characters, and yet use these same characters with the limits of the same group. We can learn to see that all the intermediate forms can be grouped together within a few great classes, and that the several members of each class are con-

relative position. If we curious it is, to give a borderland though striking instance the little hind feet of the kangaroo, which are so ill adapted for walking.

eat in band coats, — and it is not unusual, — should all be con-

the same skin, so that they appear as toe furnished with two claws. Now the hind legs, this similarity of parts in it is obvious that the hind feet of these several animals are used for as widely different purposes as it is possible to conceive. The same is rendered all the more striking by the American opossum, which follows in the same habit is of it as some of the Australasian relatives, having feet constructed in the ordinary plan of a mammal. from which these statements are taken, remarks in conclusion. We may call this conclusion to the new without getting much in arre-

new and —
of relation, we may hope to make sure to follow progress.

Professor Haeckel in his *Generelle Morphologie* and in other works, has recently brought his great knowledge and abilities to bear on what he calls phylogeny, or the line of descent of all organic beings. In drawing parallel series he trusts chiefly to embryological characters, but receives aid from homologous and rudimentary organs, as well as from the successive periods through the various forms of life are believed to have first appeared in our geological formations. He has thus boldly made great beginning, and should his classification will in the future be bettered.

Morphology

We have seen that the members of the same class, and perhaps of the same habit, resemble each other in the general plan of the organisation. This resemblance is often expressed by the term type, or by saying that the several parts and organs in the different species of the class are homologous. The little object is not deduced from the general principles of morphology. This is of the most interesting part of natural history, and may almost be said to be the history of life. We can be more sure than that the hand of man, formed for grasping, that the mole digging the ligament of the foot, the paddle of the porpoise, and the wing of the bat, should all be constructed on the same pattern, and should include similar bones, the same

Geoffroy St. Hilaire as strongly noted on the high importance of relative position or connection in homologous parts, the may differ to almost any extent in form and use, and yet remain connected together in the same invariable order. We never find for instance the bones of the arm and fore-arm of the thigh and leg transposed. Hence the same names can be given to the same organs in widely different animals. We see the same great law, the construction of the members of

organs, serving for widely different purposes, are formed by similar means, and modified as of an upper lip, mandibles, and other pairs of maxillae. The same law governs the construction of the limbs of saccans. So that with the same principles. Now the same may be more perfectly illustrated by the example of the plan of the limbs of the members of the same class, by the doctrine of the same. The principles of the same have been generally admitted by Owen and most of the recent thinkers on the

be strongly suspected that the resemblance is only analogical owing to the *Ihascolomys* having become adapted to habits like those of a rodent. The elder De Candolle has made nearly similar observations on the general nature of the affinities of distinct families of plants.

On the principle of the multiplication and gradual divergence in character of the species descended from a common progenitor together with their retention by inheritance of some characters in common we can understand the excessively complex and radiating

now broken up by extinction into distinct groups and sub groups will have transmitted some of its characters modified in various ways and degrees to all the species and they will consequently be related to each other by circuitous lines of affinity of various lengths (as may be seen in the diagrams so often referred to) mounting up through many predecessors. As it is difficult to show the blood relationship between the numerous kindred of any ancient and noble family even by the aid of a genealogical tree and almost impossible to do so without this aid we can understand the extraordinary difficulty which naturalists have experienced in describing without the aid of a diagram the various affinities which they perceive between the many living and extinct members of the same great natural class.

Extinction as we have seen in the fourth chapter has played an important part in defining and widening the intervals between the several groups in each class. We may thus account for the distinctness of whole classes from each other—for instance of birds from all other vertebrate animals—by the belief that many ancient forms of life have been utterly lost through which the early progenitors of birds were formerly connected with the early progenitors of the other and at that time less differentiated vertebrate classes. There has been much less extinction of the forms of life which once connected fishes with batrachians. There has been still less within some whole classes, for instance the Crustacea, for here the most wonderfully diverse forms are still linked together by a long and only partially broken chain of affinities. Extinction has only defined the groups it has by no means made them for if every form which has ever lived on this earth

were suddenly to reappear though it would be quite impossible to give definitions by which each group could be distinguished still a natural classification or at least a natural arrangement would be possible. We shall see this by turning to the diagram the letters, A to Z may represent eleven Silurian genera, some of which have produced large groups of modified descendants with every link in each branch and sub branch still alive and the links not greater than those between existing varieties. In this case it would be quite impossible to give definitions by which the several members of the several groups could be distinguished from their more immediate parents and descendants. Yet the arrangement in the diagram would still hold good and would be natural for on the principle of inheritance all the forms descended for instance from A would have something in common. In a tree we can distinguish this or that branch though at the actual fork the two unite and blend together. We could not as I have said define the several groups but we could pick out types or forms, representing most of the characters of each group whether large or small and thus give a general idea of the value of the differences between them. This is what we should be driven to if we were ever to succeed in collecting all the forms in any one class which have lived throughout all time and space. Assuredly we shall never succeed in making so perfect a collection nevertheless, in certain classes we are tending towards this end and Milne Edwards has lately insisted in an able paper on the high importance of looking to types whether or not we can separate and define the groups to which such types belong.

Finally we have seen that natural selection which follows from the struggle for existence and which almost inevitably leads to extinction and divergence of character in the descendants from any one parent species explains that great and universal feature in the affinities of all organic beings namely their subordination in group under group. We use the element of descent in classing the individuals of both sexes and of all ages under one species, although they may have but few characters in common we use descent in classing acknowledged varieties. However different they may be from their parents and I believe that this element of descent is the hidden bond of connection which naturalists have sought under the term of the Natural System. On this idea of the natural system being in so far as it has been

brata probably possessed many v rterre the
unkn wn prog nit r f th Art culata, many
segm ts and th unknown p ogent r f
flowering plants, many l es arranged in ne
or more sp res. W ha e also f rm ly seen
that parts man times repeated are mu ntly
liablt arr not nly in n mber b t i form
C nseq tly such parts, be g bread p esent
in consid rabi umbers, and being highly
anable, w ld naturally aff d th mat rials
for adaptati t th most diff t purposes
t the w ld g n rally r tain, thr gh th
force of inheritance, plain tr ces f their
original or f dam tal resemblance. They
would retain this resemblance all th m re, as
th ariations, which aff rded th basis for
their subseq t modificati thro gh nat
ural selecti n, w ld t d from th first t be
similar the parts being t an rly tag f
gro th alike and being bjected t nearly
th sam co d t ns. S ch parts, wh the m re
or less modified, unless th r comm n or g n
becam wh lly obs red, w uld be senally
b m l go s.

In th great class of m ll scs, th ough th
parts in disti ct species can be h wn to be
homologous, ly f w senal b m l nes, s ch
as th al es f chitons, can be dicated
that is, w are seld m nabled t say that
part is h m l g us with an ther part in th
sam individual. And w can u d rstand this
fact f in m ll scs, n in the l west mem
bers f th lass, w d n find n rly som ch
indefinit repetition f any part as w find
in th th great classes f th animal and
getabl kingd ms.

B t m rph l gy is a m ch more complex
subject than t t first p pears, as has lately
bee w ll sh wn in remarkabl pape by Mr
E. Ra Lankester wh has drawn an im

and left des of t e body and in the success e
f h m ndivid al animal and

imperfect mann r as anal g ou mou uau s
o resemblances. The r formati n may be at
trib ted in part to distinct rganisms, or t
dist t f th same organism, h n
as
sin
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wt

Naturalists frequently p eak o —
f rmed f metam rph sed ertebræ th j w
of crabs as m tam rphosed legs the tam n
and p stils in fl w rs as m tamorphosed l a
b t t w uld in m t case be m re correct as
Professo Huxley has remarked, to peak f
both skull and rterbræ j s and legs, &c. as
ha ung been m tam rph sed not on from the
oth as they n w xist, b t from some com
mon and mpl r l m nt. Most n turalists,
h w use such langu g only in a m ta
ph ical sense th y are far from m aning t t

v rted in h a u s n
ppearance of this having occurred t t
naturalists can hardl a d mpl y i g lan
gu g h ring this plain gnificati n. Accord
ing to th w he maintained, such l n
guage may be used lite ally and the w d rful
fact of th j ws, f r instance of crab retain
ing num rous characters wh ch they prob bl
w uld ha retained through inh r tance f
th v had really been m tamorphosed from
tru th gh trem ly simple l g s, is n part
explained.

Development and Embryology

This is o f th most important subjects
in th whol round f h i tory Th meta
m rphoses f insects, with wh ch ty o is
familiar are g rally effected abruptly by a
few stages but th trans rmutations are in
reality num rous and gradual, th gh con
cealed. A certain ph m rous insect (Chloeo)
during ts dev lopm nt, mo lts, as sh wn by
Sir J Lubbock, abo tw ty times and each
tim and rgoes certain amount of chang
and in this case w see th act of m tam rpl o
sis perf rmed in a primary and grad l m n

distinct animals ung to th r descent from a
comm pro nito with subseq ent modifica
tio homogenous and th resemblances which
cannot th be accounted f h proposes to
call homoplastic P instance h belie es that
th hearts f b ds and mammals are as
whole hom g us,—that is, ha been de
n ed from comm n prog nito b t that the
four ca ties f th heart in the tw lasses are
homoplastic,—that is, ha been independ
t l d loped. Mr Lankester also add ces
the lose resemblance f the parts n th right

ture of Limbs On the ordinary view of the independent creation of each being we can only say that so it is—that it has pleased the Creator to construct all the animals and plants in each great class on a uniform plan but this is not a scientific explanation

The explanation is to a large degree simple and obvious. In some way the modified form but often affecting by correlation other parts of the organisation. In changes of this nature there will be little or no tendency to alter the original pattern or to transpose the parts. The bones of a limb might be shortened and flattened to any extent, becoming at the same time enveloped in thick membrane so as to serve as a fin or a webbed hand might have all its bones or certain bones lengthened to any extent, with the membrane connecting them increased so as to serve as a wing yet all these modifications would not tend to alter the framework of the bones or the relative connection of the parts. If we suppose that an early progenitor—the archetype as it may be called—of all mammals birds and reptiles had its limbs constructed on the existing general pattern for whatever purpose they served we can at once perceive the plain signification of the homologous construction of the limbs throughout the class. So with the mouths of insects we have only to suppose that their common progenitor had an upper lip mandibles and two pairs of maxillæ these parts being perhaps very simple in form and then natural selection will account for the infinite diversity in the structure and functions of the mouths of insects. Nevertheless it is conceivable that the general pattern of an organ might become so much obscured as to be finally lost by the reduction and ultimately by the complete abolition of certain parts. In the case of the

in the case of the suctorial crustaceans the general pattern seems thus to have become partially obscured

There is another and equally curious branch of our subject namely serial homologues or the comparison of the different parts or organs in the same individual and not of the same parts or organs in different members of the same class. Most physiologists believe that the bones of the skull are homologous—that is,

correspond in number and in relative connexion—with the elemental parts of a certain number of vertebra. The anterior and posterior limbs in all the higher vertebrate classes are plainly homologous. So it is with the wonderfully complex jaws and legs of crustaceans. It is familiar to almost every naturalist

that in the metamorphoses of leaves arranged in a pure In monstrous plants, we often get direct evidence of the possibility of one organ being transformed into another and we can actually see during the early or embryonic stages of development in flowers, as well as in crustaceans and many other animals, that organs which when mature become extremely different are at first exactly alike

How inexplicable are the cases of serial homologues on the ordinary view of creation! Why should the brain be enclosed in a box composed of such numerous and such extraordinarily shaped pieces of bone apparently representing vertebra? As Owen has remarked the benefit derived from the yielding of the sensory

is that similar bones have been created to form the wing and the leg of a bat used as they are for such totally different purposes, namely flying and walking? Why should one crustacean which has an extremely complex mouth formed of many parts consequently all ways have fewer legs or conversely those with many legs have simpler mouths? Why should the sepals petals stamens and pistil in each flower though fitted for such distinct purposes, be all constructed on the same pattern?

On the theory of natural selection we can to a certain extent answer these questions. We need not here consider how the bodies of some animals first became divided into a series of segments or how they became divided into right and left sides with corresponding organs, for such questions are almost beyond investigation. It is, however, probable that some serial structures are the result of cells multiplying by division entailing the multiplication of the parts by which they are formed

as in the case of the eye or of the tail peculiar forms therefore the unknown progenitor of the vertebrate

und wate We ha e n m re reason to be
b in h rel ti n, than w h to believ
th t th s milar bones th hand of man,
wing of a b t, and fi f porpoise, are rel ted
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that the tripe n the wh lp f l the
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thos m is.

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chrysalis st ge f butte flies, they lave x
pairs f bea tifully con tructed natatory legs,
a n f magnificent compo nd eyes, and x
t

the lar to ts co ditio ns of lif i just as pe
fect and as be tif las: the ad lt animal. In
h w impo tant mann r th l as acted, l as
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rd ra, and n th d s m lar ty f th larv of
th nsects within th sam rde according

th y again tain a n n
but th y have no antennæ, and th r tw eye
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same larv has d n go stag t search f r
food, and d ring an the tag has to s arch
f a place f t t ach m t. Cases can e n be
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f peci diff n g m re from ach th than
d th adults In m t cases, h r the
larv, th gh acti still bey m re less
l sely th l w f comm n m bry nic esem
blance. Curripedes aff rd a good in tance f
th th llustr us Cu did n t per
ce that a barnacl was cr tacean b t a
glance at the lar show th n an n m tak
abl mann So agat th tw mai di s us
f curriped s, th pedun lated and sessil
th gh diff n g w d ly t rnal ppear
ance h l e n all th tag barely

a t h larvæ becua u n n
rod t h ngth ord nary tructure and to
what I ha called complem tal mal s d
in th l tte th d el pin nt has ass redly
been retrograde f th mal is a mere sack,
which li es f r a sh t time a d i destitut of
mo th tomach, and ry othe organ f
portance, excepting those fo reprodu tion

We are so m ch accustomed to see a diff
e e in stru ture b tween t l embryo and t l e
adult, that we ar tempted t look at th d f
f rence as in some necessary manner contng t
n growth B t th re s no r ason why f
instance th w g of a b t, the fin f a po
poise, sh uld n th been sk tched out w th
all th r p rts in propo propo ti n, as soon a
any part becam bl In som wh l gro p
f animals and in ce tain m mb rs of th
gro p ths th case, d the cmb y doc
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sh ll and fre h w t ustace as are born
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m mb rs f t l same t o gre t classes pass
thro gh cons d abl d ft n great l anges
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barely und g any m tam rphosis. The lar re
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poss bl t d fin el arly w t m ant by th
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ner Many insects and especially certain crustaceans show us what wonderful changes of structure can be effected during development Such changes however reach their acme in the so-called alternate generations of

1. A submarine rock should produce first by budding and then by transverse division a host of huge floating jelly fishes and that these should produce egg from which are hatched swimming animalcules which attach themselves to rocks and become developed into branching coralline and so on in an endless cycle The belief in the essential identity of the process of alternate generation and of ordinary metamorphosis has been greatly strengthened by Wagner's discovery of the larva or maggot of a fly namely the Cecidomyia producing asexually other larvae and these others which finally are developed into mature males and females propagating their kind in the ordinary manner by eggs

It may be worth notice that when Wagner's remarkable discovery was first announced I was asked how was it possible to account for the larvae of this fly having acquired the power of asexual reproduction As long as the case remained unique no answer could be given But already Grimm has shown that another fly a Chironomus reproduces itself in nearly the same manner and he believes that this

this case to a certain extent unites that of the Cecidomyia with the parthenogenesis of the Coccidæ—the term *parthenogenesis* implying that the mature females of the Coccidæ are capable of producing fertile eggs without the concurrence of the males Certain animals belonging to several classes are now known to have the power of binary reproduction at an unusually early age and we have only to ac-

been shown that generally the embryos of the most distinct species belonging to the same class are closely similar but become when fully developed widely dissimilar A better proof of this latter fact cannot be given than the statement by von Baer that The embryos of mammalia of birds lizards and snakes, probably also of chelonians are in their earliest states exceedingly like one another both as a whole and in the mode of development of their parts so much so in fact that we can often distinguish the embryos only by their size In my possession are two little embryos in spirit, whose names I have omitted to attach and at present I am quite unable to say to what class they belong They may be lizards or small birds or very young mammalia, so complete is the similarity in the mode of formation of the head and trunk in these animals The extremities however are still absent in these embryos But even if they had existed in the earliest stage of their development we should learn nothing for the feet of lizards and mammalia the wings and feet of birds no less than the hands and feet of man all arise from the same fundamental form The larvae of most crustaceans at corresponding stages of de-

1. The law of embryonic resemblance occasionally lasts till a rather late age thus birds of the same genus and of allied genera often resemble each other in their immature plumage as we see in the spotted feathers in the young of the thrush group In the cat tribe most of the species when adult are striped or spotted in lines and stripes or spots can be plainly distinguished in the whelp of the lion and the puma We occasionally though rarely see something of the same kind in plants thus the first leaves of the ulex or furze and the first leaves of the phyllodinous acacias are pinnate and divided like the ordinary leaves of the leguminosæ

stage viz that of the pupa—and we can perhaps account for the marvellous case of the Cecidomyia

It has already been stated that various parts in the same individual which are exactly alike during an early embryonic period become widely different and serve for widely different purpose in the adult state So again it has

direct relation to their conditions of existence

hatched in a nest and in the spawn of a frog

XIV

As we have conclusive evidence that the
breeds of the pigeons are descended from a
single wild species, I compared the young
with the race before hatched. I

feet and length of legs. The wild parrot species in position, fantails, rufes, barbs, drag ons,

1

have been ranked as distinct races and in a lot of native birds in the thing birds of these all breeds are placed in a row though most of them could be distinguished, the proportional difference in the two specified points were incomparably less than in the full grown birds. Some characteristic difference—distance that of

th adult tax

These facts are explained by the above two principles. Farmers select the best dogs, horses, pigeons, &c., for breeding, when nearly grown up they are different with the desired qualities are acquired although it is in life of the full grown animal possesses them. And the

d not g rally ppear t a ry ly period
of lif and are nh ted t corre po di g
not arly period B t th case f the sh t
faced t mbl which wh n tw l h rs ld
possessed t rope charact rs, p th t
th t th uni rsalrul f th thar
act nst diff re ce m t th li ppear
t an arly period than al, f t so,
th diff re ce m th bee unh nted, t
t correspo di g b t t an arly age.

will apply these principles to the study of birds, descended from some ancient form and modified through natural selection of different habits. Then, from the many slight successive variations supervised in the several species naturally, and having been inherited by corresponding age, the

prog into may have become through a
 course of modification adapted in o
 descendant acts as hands, another as paddles,
 in another as wings but on the above
 principles the forelimbs will not have been
 much modified the embryo of the several
 forms although in each form the forelimb will
 differ greatly in the adult state. Whatever in
 the celestial g-const used use or disuse may
 had in modifying the limbs or other part of
 any species, thus will chiefly solely have af-
 fected it when nearly mature when it was
 compelled to use its full powers to gain its own
 living and the effects thus produced will ha-
 ve

m y h v e p e r v e n e d a t a e r y e a r l y p e r i o d o f
 l i f e t h t p s m a y h b e e n i n h e r i t e d a t a n
 a r b r a g e t h a n t h t t w h i c h t h y f i r s t o c
 c u r r e d I n t h r o f t h e s e c a s e s, t h y o u n g o r
 e m b r y w i l c l o s e l y r e s e m b l e t h m a t u r e p a r
 t f r m, w h e s e e w i t h t h s h o r t f a c e d
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 c e r t a i n w i l l g r o p s, i n c e r t a i n s b g r o p
 a l o a s c r u t t l e - f i s h, l a n d s h e l l s, f r e s h
 w a t e r c r u t a c e a n s, p d r s, a n d s o m m m b r s
 o f t h g r e t l a s s f n s e c t s. W t h r e s p e c t t t h e
 f i n a l s e f t h y u n g i n c h g r o u p n t
 p a s s i n g t h r o g h a n y m t a m o r p h o s i s, w e a n
 s e e t h a t t h i s w l d f l l w f r o m t h f l l w g
 c o n t g c i e s a m l y f r o m t h y u g h v i g
 t p r o d e t r y e a r l a g e f t h i r w n
 w a n t s, a n d f r o t h i r f l l w i n t h s a m h a b
 i t o f l i f w t h i r p a r e n t s f i n t h i s c a s e i t
 w u l d b n d p e n s a b l f r t h e x t n e e t h t
 t h y s h l d b e m o d i f i e d t h s a m e m a n n a s
 t h p a r e t s. A g a i n, w t h r e s p e c t t t h s i n g u
 l a r f a c t t h t m a n y t e s t r a l a n d f r e s h w t
 a n i m a l s d n t u d g o a n y m t a m r p h s i s,
 w h i l s t m a r i n m m b e r s o f t h s a m e g r o p

in that of *Iphis* if we look to the admirable drawings of the development of this insect by Professor Huxley we see hardly any trace of the vermiform stage

Sometimes it is only the earlier developmental stages which fail. Thus Fritz Müller has made the remarkable discovery that certain shrimp-like crustaceans (allied to *Penæus*) first appear under the simple nauplius-form and after passing through two or more zoea stages and then through the mysis stage finally acquire their mature structure now in the whole great malacostracan order to which these crustaceans belong no other member is

that if there had been no suppression of development, all these crustaceans would have appeared as nauplii

How then can we explain these several facts in embryology—namely the very general though not universal difference in structure between the embryo and the adult—the various parts in the same individual embryo which ultimately become very unlike and serve for diverse purposes—being at an early period of growth alike—the common but not invariable resemblance between the embryos or larvae of the most distinct species in the same class—the embryo often retaining whilst within the egg or womb structures which are of no service to it, either at that or at a later period of life—on the other hand larvae which have to provide for their own wants being perfectly adapted to the surrounding conditions—and lastly the fact of certain larvae standing higher in the scale of organisation than the mature animal into which they are developed? I believe that all these facts can be explained as follows

It is commonly assumed perhaps from monstrosities affecting the embryo at a very early period that slight variations or individual differences necessarily appear at an equally early period. We have little evidence on this head but what we have certainly points the other way for it is notorious that breeders of cattle horses and various fancy animals, cannot positively tell until some time after birth what will be the merits or demerits of their young animals. We see this plainly in our own children we cannot tell whether a child will be tall or short, or what its precise features will be. The question is not at what period of life each variation may have been caused but at

what period the effects are displayed. The cause may have acted and I believe often has acted on one or both parents before the act of generation. It deserves notice that it is of no importance to a very young animal as long as it remains in its mother's womb or in the egg or as long as it is nourished and protected by its parent whether most of its characters are acquired a little earlier or later in life. It would not signify for instance to a bird which obtained its food by having a much-curved beak whether or not whilst young it possessed a beak of this shape as long as it was fed by its parents.

I have stated in the first chapter that at whatever age a variation first appears in the parent it tends to reappear at a corresponding age in the offspring. Certain variations can only appear at corresponding ages for instance peculiarities in the caterpillar cocoon or imago states of the silk moth

It appears at a corresponding age in the offspring and parent. I am far from meaning that this is invariably the case and I could give several exceptional cases of variations (taking the word in the largest sense) which have supervened at an earlier age in the child than in the parent.

ing not early period explain as I believe all the above specified leading facts in embryology. But first let us look to a few analogous cases in our domestic varieties. Some authors who have written on dog maintain that the greyhound and bulldog though so different are really closely allied varieties descended from the same wild stock hence I was curious to see how far their puppies differed from each other. I was told by breeders that they differed just as much as their parents, and thus, judging by the eye seemed almost identical.

was told that the foals of cart and race horses—breeds which have been almost wholly formed by selection under domestication—differed as much as the full grown animals but having had careful measurements made of the dams and of three-days-old colts of race and of cart horses, I find that this is by no means the case.

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desce t, fo in e f tw gro ps th d el p
m tal stages m y ha been pp sed o
m y h bee so greatly modified thro gh
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h recognisable. E n gro ps, n which

Rudimentary Atrophied and Iboried Organs

Organs or parts in this strange co d ti n
b ring the plain tainp f inutility are ex
trem ly comm n, or ev n gene al, throug out
nature It w uld be impossibl to name ne of
the high r animals n which some pa t or tler
1 t n a rudim ntary co ditio In them in
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1

I instance in ci pa n
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larvæ to bel g to the great class f crus
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ified and anci t prog nit f th gro p, we
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mind th t th l w m y b tr b ty t, ow ng
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æ ll n t sembl any till m re an t
f rm ts ad it tat

Th s, as t seem t me, th l ad g facts in
mbry l gy wh ch are seco d to n m
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through any larval stage for it is not probable that places well adapted for both the larval and mature stages under such new and greatly changed habits of life would commonly be found unoccupied or ill occupied by other organisms. In this case the gradual acquirement at an earlier and earlier age of the adult structure would be favoured by natural selection and all traces of former metamorphoses would finally be lost.

If on the other hand it profited the young of an animal to follow habits of life slightly different from those of the parent form and consequently to be constructed on a slightly different plan or if it profited a larva already different from its parent to change still further then on the principle of inheritance at corresponding age the young or the larva might be rendered by natural selection more and more different from their parents to any conceivable extent. Differences in the larva might also become correlated with successive stages of its development so that the larva in the first stage might come to differ greatly from the larva in the second stage as is the case with many animals. The adult might also become fitted for sites or habits in which organs of locomotion or of the senses &c. would be useless and in this case the metamorphosis would be retrograde.

From the remarks just made we can see how by changes of structure in the young in conformity with changed habits of life together with inheritance at corresponding ages animals might come to pass through stages of development perfectly distinct from the primordial condition of their adult progenitors. Most of our best authorities are now convinced that the various larval and pupal stages of insects have thus been acquired through adaptation and not through inheritance from some ancient form. The curious case of *Sitaris*—a beetle which passes through certain unusual stages of development—will illustrate how this might occur. The first larval form is described by M. Iabre as an active minute insect furnished with six legs two long antennæ and four eyes. These larvæ are hatched in the nests of bees and when the male bees emerge from their burrows in the spring which they do before the females the larvæ spring on them and afterwards crawl on to the females whilst paired with the males. As soon as the female bee deposits her eggs on the surface of the honey stored in the cells the larvæ of the *Sitaris* leap on the eggs and devour them.

Afterwards they undergo a complete change their eyes disappear their legs and antennæ become rudimentary and they feed on honey so that they now more closely resemble the ordinary larvæ of insects ultimately they undergo a further transformation and finally emerge as the perfect beetle. Now if an insect, undergoing transformations like those of the *Sitaris* were to become the progenitor of a whole new class of insects the course of development of the new class would be widely different from that of our existing insects and the first larval stage certainly would not represent the former condition of any adult and ancient form.

On the other hand it is highly probable that with many animals the embryonic or larval stages show more or less completely the condition of the progenitor of the whole group in its adult state. In the great class of the Crustacea, forms wonderfully distinct from each other namely suctorial parasites cirripedes entomostraca and even the malacostraca, appear at first as larvæ under the nauplius-form and as these larvæ live and feed in the open sea, and are not adapted for any peculiar habits of life and from other reasons assigned by Hirtz Müller it is probable that at some very remote period an independent adult animal resembling the nauplius existed and subsequently produced along several divergent lines of descent the above named great crustacean groups. So again it is probable from what we know of the embryos of mammals, birds, fishes and reptiles that these animals are the modified descendants of some ancient progenitor which was furnished in its adult state with branchiæ a swimbladder four fin-like limbs and a long tail all fitted for an aquatic life.

As all the organic beings extinct and recent, which have ever lived can be arranged within a few great classes and as all within each class have according to our theory been connected together by fine gradations the best, and if our collections were nearly perfect, the only possible arrangement would be genealogical descent being the hidden bond of connexion which naturalists have been seeking under the term of the Natural System. On this view we can understand how it is that, in the eyes of most naturalists the structure of the embryo is even more important for classification than that of the adult. In two or more groups of animals however much they may differ from each other in structure and habits in their adult

rudimentary part is of greater size in the embryo relatively to the adjoining parts, than in the adult so that the organ at this early age is less rudimentary. It cannot be said to be in any degree rudimentary. Hence rudimentary organs in the adult are often said to have retained their embryonic condition.

I have now given the leading facts with respect to rudimentary organs. In reflecting on them, every one must be struck with astonishment if the same reasoning now which tells us that most parts and organs are quite adapted for certain purposes, tells us with equal plainness that these rudimentary or atrophied organs are imperfect and useless. In asking a natural history rudimentary organs are generally said to have been created for the sake of symmetry or in order to complete the scheme of nature. But this is not an explanation, merely a restatement of the fact. Nor is it consistent with itself thus the boat-constructor has rudiments of hind limb and of pelvis, and if it be said that these bones have been retained to complete the scheme of nature, why as Professor Wismann asks, have they not been retained by other snakes, which do not possess a vestige of these same bones. What would be thought of an astronomer who maintained that the satellites revolve in elliptical courses round their planet for the sake of symmetry because the planets thus revolve round the sun. An eminent physiologist accounts for the presence of rudimentary organs, by supposing that they serve to excrete milt excess, milt injurious to the system but it can be supposed that the minute papilla, which often represents the papilla in male flowers, and which is formed of mere cellular tissue, can thus act. Can we suppose that rudimentary teeth, which are subsequently absorbed, are beneficial to the rapidly growing embryonic calf by removing so precious a phosphorus from him. When a man's fingers have been amputated, imperfect nails have been known to appear on the stumps, and I could as soon believe that these vestiges of nails are developed in order to excrete horn matter as that the rudimentary nails the fin of the manatee have been developed for the same purpose.

On the view of descent with modification, the origin of rudimentary organs is comparatively simple and we can understand to a large extent the laws governing their imperfect development. We have plenty of cases of rudimentary organs in our domestic produc-

tions, — as the stump of a tail in tailless breeds, — the vestige of an ear in earless breeds of sheep, — the reappearance of minute dangling horns in hairless breeds of cattle in re- especially according to the nature of the animals, — and the fate of the whole flower in the cauliflower. We often see rudimentary parts in many species but it is difficult to rank of these cases throw light on the origin of rudimentary organs in a state of nature rather than by showing that rudimentary parts can be produced for the balance of evidence clearly indicates that species under nature do not undergo great and abrupt changes. But we learn from the history of our domestic productions that the disuse of parts leads to their reduced size and that the result is inevitable.

It appears probable that disuse has been the main agent in rendering organs rudimentary. It would first lead by slow steps to the more and more completed reduction of a part, until

islands, which have seldom been frequented by beasts for prey to take flight, and have ultimately lost the power of flying. Again, an organ, useful under certain conditions, might

have aided in rendering the organ, until it was rendered harmless and rudimentary.

Any change in structure and function, which can be effected by small stages, is within the power of natural selection so that an organ rendered, through changed habits of life, useless or injurious for any purpose, might be modified and used for another purpose. An organ might, also, be retained for one alone of its former functions. Organs, originally formed for the aid of natural selection, which are rendered useless may well be variable, for their variations can no longer be checked by natural selection. All this agrees well with what we see under nature. Moreover, at whatever period of life either disuse or selection reduces an organ, and thus will generally be when the being has come to maturity and has to exert its full powers of action, the principle of inheritance corresponding ages will tend to reproduce the organ in its reduced state at the same ma-

full formed. This animal never lives in the water. Yet if we open a gravid female we find tadpoles inside her with exquisitely feathered gills and when placed in water they swim about like the tadpoles of the water newt. Obviously this aquatic organisation has no reference to the future life of the animal nor has it any adaptation to its embryonic condition: it has solely reference to ancestral adaptations: it repeats a phase in the development of its progenitors.

An organ serving for two purposes may become rudimentary or utterly aborted for one even the more important purpose and remain perfectly efficient for the other. Thus in plants the office of the pistil is to allow the pollen tubes to reach the ovules within the ovarium. The pistil consists of a stigma supported on a style but in some Composite the male florets which of course cannot be fecundated have a rudimentary pistil for it is not crowned with a stigma but the style remains well developed and is clothed with hairs.

Organs may become rudimentary for its proper purpose and be used for a distinct one. In certain fishes the swimbladder seems to be rudimentary for its proper function of giving buoyancy but has become converted into a nascent breathing organ or lung. Many similar instances could be given.

Useful organs however little they may be developed unless we have reason to suppose that they were formerly more highly developed ought not to be considered as rudimentary. They may be in a nascent condition and in progress towards further development. Rudimentary organs on the other hand are either quite useless, such as teeth which never cut through the gums or almost useless such as the wings of an ostrich which serve merely as sails. As organs in this condition would formerly when still less developed have been of even less use than at present they cannot be considered as rudimentary.

They have been partially retained by the power of inheritance and relate to a former state of things. It is however often difficult to distinguish between rudimentary and nascent organs for we can judge only by analogy. The teeth in the jaw of a whale are rudimentary, the claws in the leg of a horse are rudimentary.

somewhat rare for beings thus provided will commonly have been supplanted by their successors with the same organ in a more perfect state and consequently will have become long ago extinct. The wing of the penguin is of high service acting as a fin it may therefore represent the nascent state of the wing not that I believe this to be the case it is more probably a reduced organ modified for a new function.

On the other hand is the case of the rudimentary organs which attain full functional development in higher vertebrates but according to the view lately advocated by Dr Günther they are probably remnants consisting of the persistent axis of a fin with the lateral rays of branches aborted. The mammary glands of the Ornithorhynchus may be considered in comparison with the udders of a cow as in a nascent condition. The ovigerous frenum of certain crustaceans which have ceased to give attachment to the ova and are feebly developed are nascent branchiae.

Rudimentary organs in the individuals of the same species are very liable to vary in the degree of their development and in other respects. In closely allied species also the extent to which the same organ has been reduced occasionally differs much. This latter fact is well exemplified in the state of the wings of female moths belonging to the same family. Rudimentary organs may be utterly aborted and thus implies that in certain animals or plants, parts are entirely absent which analogy would lead us to expect to find in them and which are occasionally found in monstrous individuals. Thus in most of the species of the genus *Uta* the rudiment occasionally becomes perfectly developed as may sometimes be seen in the common snap-dragon. In tracing the homologies of any part in different members of the same class nothing is more common or in order fully to understand the relations of the parts more useful than the discovery of rudiments. This is well shown in the drawings given by Owen of the leg bones of the horse, ox and rhinoceros.

It is an important fact that rudimentary organs such as teeth in the upper jaws of whales and ruminants can often be detected in the embryo but afterwards wholly disappear. It is also I believe a universal rule that

understand the leading facts in Embryology, namely the close resemblance in the individual embryo of the parts which are homologous, and which when matured become widely different in structure and function and the resemblance of the homologous parts of organs in allied though distinct species, though fitted in the adult state for habits as different as is possible. Larvæ are actually embryos, which have been specially modified in a greater or less degree in relation to their habits of life, and their modifications inherited to correspond early age. On these same principles, —and bearing in mind that when organs are reduced in size, they grow from disuse through natural selection, it will generally be at that period of life when the being has to provide

for its own wants, and bearing in mind how strong is the force of inheritance—the occurrence of rudimentary organs might even have been anticipated. The importance of embryological characters and of rudimentary organs in classification is not negligible in the matter with a natural arrangement must be genealogical.

Finally these several classes of facts which have been considered in this chapter seem to me to proclaim so plainly that the innumerable species, genera and families, with which this world is peopled, are all descended each within its own class group, from common parents, and have all been modified in the course of descent, that I should without hesitation admit this were even if it were unsupported by other facts or arguments.

size in the adult. If for instance the digit of an adult animal was used less and less during many generations owing to some change of habits or if an organ or gland was less and less functionally exercised we may infer that it would become reduced in size in the adult descendants of this animal but would retain nearly its original standard of development in the embryo.

There remains however this difficulty. After an organ has ceased being used and has

disuse can go on producing any further effect after the organ has once been rendered functionless. Some additional explanation is here requisite which I cannot give. If for instance it could be proved that every part of the organisation tends to vary in a greater degree towards diminution than towards augmentation of size then we should be able to understand how an organ which has become useless would be rendered independently of the effects of disuse rudimentary and would at last be wholly suppressed for the variations towards diminished size would no longer be checked by natural selection. The principle of the economy of growth explained in a former chapter by which the materials forming any part if not useful to the possessor are saved as far as possible will perhaps come into play in rendering a useless part rudimentary. But this principle will almost necessarily be confined to the earlier stages of the process of reduction for we cannot suppose that a minute papilla for instance representing in a male flower the pistil of the female flower and formed merely of cellular tissue could be further reduced or absorbed for the sake of economising nutriment.

Finally as rudimentary organs by what ever steps they may have been degraded into their present useless condition are the record of a former state of things and have been retained solely through the power of inheritance—we can understand on the genealogical view of classification how it is that systematists in placing organisms in their proper places in the natural system have often found rudimentary parts as useful as or even sometimes more useful than parts of high physiological importance. Rudimentary organs may

for its derivation. On the view of descent with modification we may conclude that the existence of organs in a rudimentary imperfect and useless condition or quite aborted, far from presenting a strange difficulty as they as usually do on the old doctrine of creation might even have been anticipated in accordance with the views here explained.

Summary

In this chapter I have attempted to show

all living and extinct organisms are united by complex radiating and circuitous lines of affinities into a few grand classes,—the rules followed and the difficulties encountered by naturalists in their classifications—the value set upon characters if constant and prevalent whether of high or of the most trifling importance or as with rudimentary organs of no importance—the wide opposition in value between analogical or adaptive characters and characters of true affinity and other such rules—all naturally follow if we admit the common parentage of allied forms together with their modification through variation and natural selection with the contingencies of difference of character in con-

varieties of the same species, however many they may differ from each other in structure. If we extend the use of this element of descent—the one certainly known cause of sim-

by the terms varieties species genera, families order and classes.

On this same view of descent with modification most of the great facts in Morphology

—the one certainly known cause of sim-

and lateral homologies in each individual animal and plant.

On the principle of successive slight variations, not necessarily or generally supervening at a very early period of life and being inherited at a corresponding period we can

them increased size and vigour. This is chiefly owing to the forms which are crossed having been exposed to some what different conditions of life. It has been ascertained by a laborious series of experiments that all the individuals of the same variety be subjected to the same conditions, the good and bad from crossing is often much diminished and wholly disappears. Thus in the case of the elephant we know that species which have long been exposed to nearly uniform conditions, when they are subjected and confined in the new and greatly changed conditions, they perish if they

diffusion of the same species for during very long periods there will always have been a good chance for wide migration by many means. A broken or interrupted range may still be accounted for by the extinction of the species in the intermediate regions. It cannot be denied that we are as ignorant as to the full extent of the various Himalayan and African mountain ranges which have affected the

potential has been the influence of the glacial period on the distribution of the same and of allied species throughout the world. We are therefore still ignorant of the many occasions

probably that this result is due to the inheritance in fact subjected to great change in the conditions of life from being compounded of two distinct races. If we will explain in definite manner why for instance an elephant of African breed and confinement is not so tall as the domestic pig dog will breed freely under the most diversified conditions, will the same time be able to give a definite answer to the question why two distinct species, when crossed as well as the hybrid offspring are generally rendered more or less sterile whilst the domesticated varieties which are crossed and their mongrel offspring perfectly fertile.

Turning to geographical distribution, the difficulties encountered in the theory of descent with modification are serious enough. All the individuals of the same species, and all the species of the same genus, or higher groups, are descended from common parents and therefore inhabit distant and isolated parts of the world though they may now be found the most in the course of access. It is thus has travelled from some point to all the others. We are often well unable to conjecture how this could have been effected. Yet, as we have reason to believe that some species have retained the same specific form for very long periods of time immemorial as far as we are assured by years, too much stress ought not to be laid on the occasional wide

cases of the same genus is in some degree lessened.

As according to the theory of natural selection an interminable number of intermediate forms must have existed linking together all the species in each group by gradations as fine as are our existing varieties, it may be asked. Why do we not see these linking forms all around us? Why are not all organic beings blended together in an inextricable chaos? With respect to existing forms, we should remember that we have no right to expect (excepting in rare cases) to discover directly connecting links between them, but only between each and some intermediate and so implanted form. In a wide area, which has during

occupied by a closely allied species, we have no right to expect often to find intermediate varieties in the intermediate zones. For we have reason to believe that only a few species of a genus undergo change, the other species becoming utterly extinct and leaving no modified progeny. Of the species which do change only a few within the same country change at the same time and all modifications are slowly effected. I have also

CHAPTER XV

RECAPITULATION AND CONCLUSION

As this whole volume is one long argument, it may be convenient to the reader to have the leading facts and inferences briefly recapitulated.

That many and serious objections may be advanced against the theory of descent with modification through variation and natural selection I do not deny. I have endeavoured to give to them their full force. Nothing at first can appear more difficult to believe than that the more complex organs and instincts have been perfected not by means superior to though analogous with human reason but by the accumulation of innumerable slight variations each good for the individual possessor. Nevertheless this difficulty though appearing to our imagination insuperably great, cannot be considered real if we admit the following propositions namely that all parts of the organisation and instincts offer at least individual differences—that there is a struggle for existence leading to the preservation of profitable deviations of structure.

The truth of these propositions cannot I think be disputed.

It is no doubt extremely difficult even to conjecture by what gradations many structures have been perfected more especially amongst broken and failing groups of organic beings which have suffered much extinction but we see so many strange gradations in nature that we ought to be extremely cautious in saying that any organ or instinct or any whole structure could not have arrived at its present state by many graduated steps. There are it must be admitted cases of peculiar difficulty opposed to the theory of natural selection and one of the most curious of these is the existence in the same community of two or three defined castes of workers or sterile female ants but I have attempted to show how these difficulties can be mastered.

With respect to the almost universal sterility of species when first crossed which forms so remarkable a contrast with the almost universal fertility of varieties when crossed I must refer the reader to the recapitulation of the facts given at the end of the ninth chapter

which seem to me conclusively to show that this sterility is no more a

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systems of the intercrossed species. We see the truth of this conclusion in the vast difference in the results of crossing the same two species reciprocally—that is when one species is first used as the father and then as the mother. Analogy from the consideration of dimorphic and trimorphic plants clearly leads to the same conclusion for when the forms are illegitimately united they yield few or no seed and their offspring are more or less sterile and these forms belong to the same undoubted species and differ from each other in no respect except in their reproductive organs and functions.

Although the fertility of varieties when intercrossed and of their mongrel offspring has been asserted by so many authors to be universal this cannot be considered as quite correct after the facts given on the high authority of Gartner and Kolreuter. Most of the varieties which have been experimented on have been produced under domestication and as domestication (I do not mean mere confinement) almost certainly tends to eliminate that sterility which judging from analogy would have affected the parent species if intercrossed we ought not to expect that domestication would likewise induce sterility in their modified descendants when crossed. Thus elimination of sterility apparently follows from the same cause which allows our domestic animals to breed freely under diversified circumstances and thus again apparently follows from their having been gradually accustomed to frequent changes in their conditions of life.

A double and parallel series of facts seems to throw much light on the sterility of species, when first crossed and of their hybrid offspring. On the one side there is good reason to believe that slight changes in the conditions of life give vigour and fertility to all organic beings. We know also that a cross between the distinct individuals of the same variety and between distinct varieties, increases the number of their offspring and certainly gives to

has always been the case so sequentially formations much older than any now known may be buried beneath the great oceans. With respect to the lapse of time in the geological record since our plan was considered for the assumed amount of organic change, and this objection, as urged by Sir William Thomson, is probably the first great objection that need I can only say firstly that the world is not a

growth disuse of surplus culture in ascending generations. Productions have been modified but we may safely infer that the modifications are but for long periods. As long as the conditions of life remain the same, we have reason to believe that a modification, which has already been introduced by many generations, may continue to be introduced for an almost infinite number of generations. On the other hand we have evidence that variability within a species does not cease under domestication. As a rule, however, we know that the races, for new varieties are continually produced by the old domesticated productions.

Species have changed and they have changed in the manner required by the theory of the change slowly and a gradual manner. We clearly see this in the fossil remains from consecutive strata in a series being in each more closely related to each other than are the fossils from widely separated formations.

Science is the method of the rational objection and difficulty which may be justly urged against the theory and I have now briefly recapitulated the answers and explanations which as far as I can see may be given. I have felt these difficulties far too heavily during many years to doubt their weight. But I do serve special notice that the more important objections relate to questions in which we are confessedly ignorant and we know how ignorant we are. We do not know all the possible transitional gradations between the simplest and the most perfect organisms. It cannot be pretended that we know all the needed means of distribution during the geological lapse of time, that we know how the imperfect is the Geological Record. So it is as the series of objects are, my judgment is that they are by no means sufficient to throw the theory of descent with subsequent modification.

Now let us turn to the difficulties of the argument. Under the treatment we see in which variability caused by the last extended by changed conditions of life but often in so obscure a manner that we are tempted to consider the variations as spontaneous. Variability is governed by many complex laws,—by correlated

Variability is not actually caused by man but only unitarily exposed to gain because to new conditions of life and then nature acts through the organism and causes it to vary. But man and does select the variations given to him by nature and then accumulates them in any desired manner. He thus adapts animals and plants for his own benefit and pleasure. He may do this methodically or he may do it unconsciously by preserving the individuals most useful to him with the any selection of the breeding stock. It is certain that he can largely influence the character of

the useful domesticated breeds. That many breeds produced by man have to a large extent the characteristics of natural species, shown by the intractable doubts whether many of them are arially or aboriginally distinct species.

There is no reason why the principles which have acted so efficiently under domestication should not have acted in nature. In the universal forces of the universe and the incessantly recurring struggle for existence we see powerful and ever acting

In many animals and plants during a season of peculiar seasons, and when naturalised

allied forms on either hand for the latter from existing in greater numbers would generally be modified and improved at a quicker rate than the intermediate varieties which existed in lesser numbers so that the intermediate varieties would in the long run be supplanted and exterminated.

On this doctrine of the extermination of an infinitude of connecting links between the living and extinct inhabitants of the world and at each successive period between the extinct and still older —

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nce of the gradation and mutation of the forms of life? Although geological research has undoubtedly revealed the former existence of many links bringing numerous forms of life much closer together it does not yield the infinitely many fine gradations between past and present species required on the theory and this is the most obvious of the many objections which may be urged against it. Why again do whole groups of allied species appear though this appearance is often false to have come in suddenly on the successive geological stages? Although we now know that organic beings appeared on this globe at a period incalculably remote long before the lowest bed of the Cambrian system was deposited why do we not find beneath this system great piles of strata stored with the remains of the progenitors of the Cambrian fossils? For on the theory such strata must somewhere have been deposited at these ancient and utterly unknown epochs of the world's history.

I can answer these questions and objections only on the supposition that the geological record is far more imperfect than most geologists believe. The number of specimens in all our museums is absolutely as nothing compared with the countless generations of countless species which have certainly existed. The parent form of any two or more species would not be in all its characters directly intermediate between its modified offspring any more than the rock pigeon is directly intermediate in crop and tail between its descendants, the pouter and fantail pigeons. We should not be able to recognise a species as the parent of another and modified species if we were to examine the two ever so closely unless we possessed most of the intermediate links and owing to the imperfection of the geological record we have no just right to expect to find

so many links. If two or three or even more linking forms were discovered they would simply be ranked by many naturalists as so many new species more especially if found in different geological sub stages, let their differences be ever so slight. Numerous existing doubtful forms could be named which are probably varieties but who will pretend that in future ages so many fossil links will be discovered that naturalists will be able to decide whether or not these doubtful forms ought to be called varieties? Only a small portion of the world has been geologically explored. Only organic beings of certain classes can be preserved in a fossil condition at least in any great number. Many

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are undergone modification though long as measured by years have probably been short in comparison with the periods during which they retain the same form. It is the dominant and widely —

a discovery of intermediate links in any one formation less likely. Local varieties will not spread into other and distant regions until they are considerably modified and improved and when they have spread and are discovered in a geological formation they appear as if suddenly created there and will be simply classed as new species. Most formations have been intermittent in their accumulation and their duration has probably been shorter than the average duration of peaceful forms. Successive formations are in most cases separated from each other by blank intervals of time of —

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During these latter periods the earth will probably be more variable in the forms of life during periods of subsidence more extinction.

With respect to the absence of strata rich in fossils beneath the Cambrian formation I can recur only to the hypothesis given in the tenth chapter namely that though our continents and oceans have endured for an enormous period in nearly their present relative positions, we have no reason to assume that this

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respects resembling variations. These are transpositions on the view that each species was independently created but are intelligible if each existed first as a variety.

As each species tends by its geometrical rate of reproduction to increase inordinately in number and as the modified descendants of each species will be enabled to increase by as much as they become more diversified in habits and structure, so as to be able to seize on man and widely different places in the economy of nature, there will be a constant tendency in natural selection to preserve the most divergent offspring of any species. Hence, during long continued course of modification, the slight differences characteristic of varieties of the same species, tend to be grouped into the great differences characteristic of the species of the same genus. New and improved varieties will in fact be planted and transmitted the less improved and intermediate varieties and thus species are rendered large and defined and distinct objects. Dominant species belong to the larger groups within each class and to give birth to new and dominant forms so that each large group tends to become still larger and the same time more divergent in character. But as all groups cannot thus go on increasing in size the world would be filled with more dominant groups but the less dominant. This tendency in the large group to go on increasing in size and diverging in character to the width in the table contingency of much extinction, explains the arrangement of all the forms of life in groups subordinate to groups, all within a few great classes, which has prevailed throughout all time. This grand fact of the grouping of all organic beings under what is called the Natural System, is itself very explicable in the theory of creation.

As natural selection acts slowly by accumulating slight, successive favourable variations, it can produce great and sudden modifications. It can act not only slowly and slowly. If the canon of Natural Selection is followed which every fresh addition to our knowledge tends to confirm, this theory is intelligible. We can see by its thoroughness that the same general end is gained by an almost infinitesimal diversity of means, for its peculiarities when once acquired is long inherited and true to its already modified in man different ways. It has to be adapted for the same general purpose. We can, in short, see why nature is prodigal in variety though niggard in means.

But why this should be a law of nature if each species has been independently created no man can explain.

Many other facts are, as it seems to me explicable on this theory. How strange it is that a bird under the form of woodpecker should prey on insects on the ground that upland geese which rarely or never swim should possess webbed feet that a thrush-like bird should dig and feed on herbaceous insects and that a petrel should have the habits and structure fitting for the life of an albatross and so in endless other cases. But on the whole each species constantly trying to increase in number with natural selection always ready to admit the slowly arising descendants of each to an unoccupied or ill-occupied place in nature.

This may be largely attributed to the effect of selection. The theory according to our sense of it, is not universal must be admitted by one who will look at

patterns, and the names to the males, and sometimes to both sexes of many birds, butterflies, and the animals. With the bird has often rendered the effect of the male call the female as well as to the ears. Flowers and fruits have been rendered conspicuous by brilliant colours contrast with the green foliage, in order that the flowers may be readily seen, sited and fertilised by insects, and the seed disseminated by birds. If we take that the colour, sounds, and form should give place to man and the animals—that is, the sense of beauty in its simplest form was first acquired—we do not know any more than how certain colours and flowers were first rendered agreeable.

As natural selection acts by competition, it adapts and improves the inhabitants of each country only in relation to the co-inhabitants so that we need feel no surprise that the peculiarities of any country although on the ordinary view supposed to have been created and peculiarly adapted for that country being better and implanted by the naturalised products from another land might we to mark if all the countries since in the world, as far as we are able to see, are perfect, as in

in new countries. More individuals are born than can possibly survive. A grain in the balance may determine which individuals shall live and which shall die—which variety or species shall increase in number and which shall decrease or finally become extinct. As the individuals of the same species come in all respects into the closest competition with each other, the struggle will generally be most severe between them; it will be almost equally severe between the varieties of the same species, and next in severity between the species of the same genus. On the other hand, the struggle will often be severe between beings remote in the scale of nature. The slightest advantage in certain individuals at any age or during any season over those with which they come into competition, or better adaptation in however slight a degree to the surrounding physical conditions, will in the long run turn the balance.

With animals having separated sexes there will be in most cases a struggle between the males for the possession of the females. The most vigorous males, or those which have most successfully struggled with their conditions of life, will generally leave most progeny. But success will often depend on the males having special weapons or means of defence or charms, and a slight advantage will lead to victory.

As geology plainly proclaims that each land has undergone great physical changes, we might have expected to find that organic beings have varied under nature in the same way as they have varied under domestication. And if there has been any variability under nature, it would be an unaccountable fact if natural selection had not come into play. It has often been asserted, but the assertion is incapable of proof, that the amount of variation under nature

ent parts of the same continent when divided by barriers of any kind, and on outlying islands, what a multitude of forms exist, which some experienced naturalists rank as varieties, others as geographical races or sub-species, and others as distinct though closely allied species.

If then animals and plants do vary, let it be ever so slightly or slowly, why should not variations or individual differences, which are in any way beneficial, be preserved and accumulated through natural selection, or the survival of the fittest? If ~

can be put to this power, acting during long ages and rigidly scrutinising the whole constitution, structure, and habits of each creature—favouring the good and rejecting the bad, I can see no limit to this power in slowly and beautifully adapting each form to the most complex relations of life. The theory of natural selection, even if we look no farther than this, seems to be in the highest degree probable. I have already recapitulated as far as I could the opposed difficulties and objections; now let us turn to the special facts and arguments in favour of the theory.

On the view that species are only strongly marked and permanent varieties, and that each species first existed as a variety, we can see why it is that no line of demarcation

is acknowledged to have been produced by secondary laws. On this same view we can understand how it is that in a region where many species of a genus have been produced, and where the

... short period a great result by adding up mere individual differences in his domestic productions, and every one admits that species present individual differences. But, besides such differences, all naturalists admit that natural varieties exist, which are considered sufficiently distinct to be worthy of record in systematic works. No one has drawn any clear distinction between individual differences and slight varieties, or between more plainly marked varieties and sub-species and species. On separate continents, and on differ-

ent parts we might expect, as a general rule, to find it still in action, and this is the case if varieties be incipient species. Moreover, the species of the larger genera, which afford the greater number of varieties or incipient species, retain to a certain degree the character of varieties, for they differ from each other by a less amount of difference than do the species of small genera.

... round other species—in both

the case even of the human eye or if some of them be abhorrent to our ideas of fitness. We need not marvel at the sting of the bee when used against an enemy causing the bee's own death at drones being produced in such great numbers for one single act and being then slaughtered by their sterile sisters at the astonishing waste of pollen by our fir trees at the instinctive hatred of the queen bee for her own fertile daughters at the Ichneumonidae feeding within the living bodies of caterpillars or at other such cases. The wonder indeed is on the theory of natural selection that more cases of the want of absolute perfection have not been detected.

The complex and little known laws governing the production of varieties are the same as far as we can judge with the laws which have governed the production of distinct species. In both cases physical conditions seem to have produced some direct and definite effect but how much we cannot say. Thus when varieties enter any new station they occasionally assume some of the characters proper to the species of that station. With both varieties and species use and disuse seem to have produced a considerable effect for it is impossible to re-

they all agree? Why for instance should the colour of a flower be more likely to vary in any one species of a genus if the other species possess differently coloured flowers than if all possessed the same coloured flowers? If species are only well marked varieties, of which the characters have become in a high degree permanent, we can understand this fact for they have already varied since they branched off from a common progenitor in certain characters, by which they have come to be peculiarly distinct from each other therefore these same characters would be more likely again to vary than the generic characters which have been inherited without change for an immense period. It is inexplicable on the theory of creation why a part developed in a very unusual manner in one species alone of a genus, and therefore as we may naturally infer of great importance to that species should be eminently liable to variation but on our view this part has undergone since the several species branched off from a common progenitor an unusual amount of variability and modification and therefore we might expect the part generally to be still variable. But a part may be developed in the most unusual manner like the wing of a bat and yet not be more variable than any other structure if the part be com-

as in the domestic duck or when we look at the burrowing tucu tucu which is occasionally blind and then at certain moles which are habitually blind and have their eyes covered with skin or when we look at the blind animals inhabiting the dark caves of America and Europe. With varieties and species correlated variation seems to have played an important part so that when one part has been modified other parts have been necessarily modified. With both parties and species reversions to long lost characters occasionally occur. How inexplicable on the theory of creation is the

Glancing at instinct, marvellous as some are they offer no greater difficulty than do corporeal structures on the theory of the natural selection of successive slight, but profitable modifications. We can thus understand why nature moves by graduated steps in en-

tion than in the admirable architecture of

fact explained if we believe that these species are all descended from a striped progenitor in the same manner as the several domestic breeds of the pigeon are descended from the blue and barred rock pigeon!

On the ordinary view of each species having independently created by should spe-

having descended from a common parent, and having inherited much in common we can understand how it is that allied species, though placed under widely different conditions still yet follow nearly the same instincts while the thrushes of tropical and temperate North America, for instance line their nests with

RECAPITULATION AND CONCLUSION

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not be reduced or rendered rudimentary at this early age. The calf, for instance, has inherited teeth, which are cut through the gums of the puppy from an early period, for having well-developed teeth and we may believe, that the teeth in the mature animal were formerly reduced to disuse owing to the tongue and palato-lips, having become so fitted through natural selection to browse without their aid, whereas the calf's teeth have been left unaffected, and on this principle of inheritance the corresponding ones have been inherited from a remote period to the present day. On the whole of each organism with all its separate parts having been peculiarly created, how utterly inexplicable that organs bearing the plain stamp of utility, such as the teeth in the embryonic calf or the sun-flied wings and the solid red wing covers of many beetles, should so frequently occur. Nature may be said to have taken pains to reveal her scheme of modification, by means of rudimentary organs, of embryonic local and homologous structures, but we are too much used to understand her meaning.

I have now recapitulated the facts and considerations which have thoroughly convinced me that species have been modified, during a long course of descent. This has been effected chiefly through the natural selection of numerous successive slight favourable variations added in an important manner by the inherited effects of the use and disuse of parts, and in an important manner that is in relation to adaptive structures, which persist present, but the direct action of structural conditions, and variations which seem to us in our ignorance to arise spontaneously. It appears that I formed and created the frequency and all of these latter forms of variation, as leading to permanent modifications of structure independent of natural selection. But as my conclusions have lately been much misrepresented and it has been stated that I attribute the modification of species to selection, I may be permitted to remark that in the first edition of this work, and subsequently if I placed in most conspicuous position—namely, the close of the Introduction—the following words: "I am convinced that natural selection has been the main but not the sole means of modification." This has been of no avail. Great is the power of self-misrepresentation, but the history of science shows that fortunately this power does not long end.

It can hardly be supposed that a false theory would explain, in so satisfactory a manner as does the theory of natural selection, the several large classes of facts above specified. It has recently been objected that this is an unsafe method of argument, but the method used in judging of the common sense of life and has often been used by the greatest natural philosophers. The undulatory theory of light has thus been arrived at and the belief in the revolution of the earth on its own axis was until lately supported by hardly any direct evidence. It is a valid objection that science as it throws no light on the far higher problems of the essence, origin of life. Who can explain what is the essence of the attraction of gravity? Upon new objects the flowing out the results consequently in this unknown element of attraction notwithstanding that Leibnitz formerly accused Newton of introducing occult qualities and miracles into philosophy.

I see no good reason why the wise men in this world should shock the religious feelings of an age. It is satisfactory as showing how transient such impressions are to remember that the greatest discovery made by man, namely, the law of the attraction of gravity, was also attacked by Leibnitz, as an error of nature, and infinitesimally of revealed religion. A celebrated author and divine has written to me that "he has gradually learnt to see that this just as noble concept of the Deity to believe that He created few original forms capable of self-development into other and needful forms, as to believe that He required fresh acts of creation to supply the voids caused by the action of His laws."

What may be asked until recently did nearly all the most eminent living naturalists and geologists disbelieve in the mutability of species. It cannot be asserted that organic beings in the state of nature are subject to no variation. It cannot be proved that the amount of variation in the course of long ages is limited, quality no clear distinction has been, or can be drawn between species and well-marked varieties. It cannot be maintained that species which are intercrossed are invariably sterile and sterile animals are infertile or that sterility is a special endowment and sign of creation. The belief that species were immutable productions was almost unassailable as long as the history of the world was thought to be of short duration and now that we have acquired some idea of the lapse of time we are too poor

the relation of organism to organism is the most important of all relations and as the two countries will have received colonists at various periods and in different numbers

cautious We see why certain characters are far more serviceable than others for classification — why adaptive characters

On this view of migration with subsequent

modification we see why oceanic islands are inhabited by only few species but of these why many are peculiar or endemic forms We clearly see why species belonging to those groups of animals which cannot cross wide spaces of the ocean as frogs and terrestrial mammals do not inhabit oceanic islands and why on the other hand new and peculiar species of bats animals which can traverse the ocean are found

from rudimentary parts, though of no service to the beings, are often of high classificatory value

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inheritance or community of descent The Natural System is a genealogical arrangement with the acquired grades of difference marked by the terms, varieties, species genera, families &c and we have to discover the lines of descent by the most permanent characters whatever they may be and of however slight vital importance.

The existence of closely allied or representative species in any two areas implies on the theory of descent with modification that the same parent forms formerly inhabited both areas and we almost invariably find that wherever many closely allied species inhabit two areas some identical species are still common to both Wherever many closely allied yet distinct species occur doubtful forms and varieties belonging to the same groups likewise occur It is a rule of high generality that the inhabitants of each area are related to the inhabitants of the nearest source whence immigrants might have been derived We see this in the striking relation of the

The similar framework of bones in the hand of a man wing of a bat fin of the porpoise and leg of the horse — the same number of vertebra forming the neck of the giraffe and of the elephant — and innumerable other such facts at once explain themselves on the theory of descent with slow and slight successive modifications The similarity of pattern in the wing and in the leg of a bat though used for such different purpose — in the jaws and legs of a crab — in the petal stamens and pistils of a flower is likewise to a large extent intelligible on the view of

and animals of the neighbouring American mainland and of those of the Cape de Verde Archipelago and of the other African islands to the African mainland It must be admitted that these facts receive no explanation on the theory of creation

The fact as we have seen that all past and present organic beings can be arranged within a few great classes in groups subordinate to groups and with the extinct groups often falling in between the recent groups is intelligible on the theory of natural selection with its contingencies of extinction and divergence of character On these same principles we see how it is that the mutual affinities of the forms within each class are so complex and cir

On the principle of successive variations not always supervening at an early age and being inherited at a corresponding not early period of life we clearly see why the embryos of mammals birds reptile and fishes should be so closely similar and so unlike the adult forms We may cease marvelling at the embryo of an air breathing mammal or bird having branchial slits and arteries running in loops like those of a fish which has to breathe the air dissolved in water by the aid of well-developed branchia

Disuse aided sometimes by natural selection

Causing of rudimentary organs. But disuse and selection will generally act on each creature when it has come to maturity and has to play its full part in the struggle for existence and will thus have little power on an organ during early life hence the organ will

have suddenly go on birth, through quit unexpanded means, to new and totally different forms but, as I have attempted to show, weighty evidence can be opposed to the admission of great and abrupt modifications. Under some point of view and as I am inclined to further investigation, but little advantage is gained by believing that new forms are suddenly developed in an inexplicable manner from old and widely different forms, or the old belief in the creation of species from the dust of the earth.

It may be asked how far I extend the doctrine of the modification of species. The question is difficult to answer because the more distinct the forms are which we consider by so much the arguments in favour of community of descent become fewer in number and less in force. But some arguments of the greatest weight extend very far. All the members of whose classes are connected together by a chain of affinities, and all can be classified on the same principle in groups subordinate to groups. Fossil remains sometimes tend to fill up very wide intervals between existing orders.

Organisms in rudimentary condition point out that an early progenitor had the same in a fully developed condition and this in some cases implies an enormous amount of modification in the descendants. Throughout whole classes analogous structures are formed on the same pattern, and at every early stage the embryos closely resemble each other. Therefore I cannot doubt that the theory of descent with modification embraces all the members of the same great class or kingdom. I believe that animals are descended from at most only four or five progenitors, and plants from an equal or lesser number.

Analogy would lead me one step farther namely to believe that all animals and plants are descended from some one prototype. But this analogy may be deceitful. Nevertheless all living things have much in common, in their chemical composition, their cellular structure, their law of growth, and their liability to numerous diseases. We see this even in so striking a fact as that the same poison often similarly affects plants and animals or that the poison secreted by the gall-fly produces monstrous growths on the wild rose or oak-tree. With all organic beings excepting perhaps some of the very lowest, sexual production seems to be essentially similar. With all, as far as is at present known the

germinal vesicle is the same so that all organisms start from a common origin. If we look even to the two main divisions—namely to the animal and vegetable kingdoms—certain low forms are so far intermedial in character that naturalists have disputed to which kingdom they should be referred. As Professor Asa Gray has remarked, "The pores and other reproductive bodies of many of the lowest may claim to have a first characteristically animal, and then an unequivocally vegetable existence." There is on the principle of natural selection with divergence of character it does not seem incredible that, from such low and intermedial form, both animals and plants may have been developed and, if we admit this, we must likewise admit that all the organic beings which have ever lived on this earth may be descended from some one primordial form. But this inference is chiefly founded on analogy and it is immaterial

whether that only a very few have left modified descendants. For as I have recently remarked in regard to the members of each great kingdom, such as the Vertebrata, Articulata, &c., we have distinct evidence in their embryological homologous and rudimentary structures that within each kingdom all the members are descended from a single progenitor.

When the words advanced by me in this volume and by Mr Wallace, when analogous views on the origin of species are generally admitted, we can dimly foresee that there will be a considerable revolution in natural history. Systematists will be able to pursue their labours as at present but they will not be incessantly haunted by the shadowy doubt whether this or that form be a true species. Thus I feel sure and I speak after experience will be a slight relief. The endless disputes whether or not some adventitious species of British brambles are good species will cease. Systematists will have only to decide (not that this will be easy) whether any form be sufficiently constant and distinct from other forms, to be capable of designation and if definable whether the differences be sufficiently important to deserve a specific name. This latter point will become far more essential consideration than it is at present for differences, however slight, between any two forms if not blended by intermediate gradations, are looked at by most

to assume without proof that the geological record is so perfect that it would have afforded us plain evidence of the mutation of species if they had undergone mutation

But the chief cause of our natural unwillingness to admit that one species has given birth to clear and distinct species is that we are always slow in admitting great changes of which we do not see the steps. The difficulty is the same as that felt by so many geologists when Lyell first insisted that long lines of inland cliffs had been formed and great valleys excavated by the agencies which we see still at work. The mind cannot possibly grasp the full meaning of the term of even a million years; it cannot add up and perceive the full effects of many slight variations accumulated during an almost infinite number of generations.

Although I am fully convinced of the truth of the views given in this volume under the form of an abstract, I by no means expect to convince experienced naturalists whose minds are stocked with a multitude of facts all viewed during a long course of years from a point of view directly opposite to mine. It is so easy to hide our ignorance under such expressions as the plan of creation, unity of design, &c. and to think that we give an explanation when we only restate a fact. Any one whose disposition leads him to attach more weight to unexplained difficulties than to the explanation of a certain number of facts will certainly reject the theory. A few naturalists, endowed with much flexibility of mind and who have already begun to doubt the immutability of species, may be influenced by this volume; but I look with confidence to the future—to young and rising naturalists, who will be able to view both sides of the question with impartiality. Whoever is led to believe that species are mutable will do good service by conscientiously expressing his conviction; for thus only can the load of prejudice by which this subject is overwhelmed be removed.

Several eminent naturalists have of late published their belief that a multitude of reputed species in each genus are not real species, but that other species are real that is have been independently created. This seems to me a strange conclusion to arrive at. They

features of true species,—they admit that these have been produced by variation but they refuse to extend the same view to other and slightly different forms. Nevertheless they do not pretend that they can define or even conjecture which are the created forms of life, and which are those produced by secondary laws. They admit variation as a *vera causa* in one case they arbitrarily reject it in another without assigning any distinction in the two cases. The day will come when this will be given as a curious illustration of the blindness of preconceived opinion. These authors seem no more startled at a miraculous act of creation than at an ordinary birth. But do they really believe that at innumerable periods in the earth's history certain elemental atoms have been commanded suddenly to flash into living tissues? Do they believe that at each supposed act of creation one individual or many were produced? Were all the infinitely numerous kinds of animals and plants created as eggs or seed or as full grown? and in the case of mammals were they created bearing the false marks of nourishment from the mother's womb? Undoubtedly some of the same

has been maintained by several authors that it is as easy to believe in the creation of a million beings as of one; but Maupertuis's philosophical axiom of least action leads the mind more willingly to admit the smaller number and certainly we ought not to believe that innumerable beings within each great class have been created with plain but deceptive marks of descent from a single parent.

each species and I have been much censured for having thus expressed myself. But undoubtedly this was the general belief when the first edition of the present work appeared. I formerly spoke to very many naturalists on the subject of evolution and never once met

quently have all the external characteristic

are I however some who still think that species

and of by miraculous acts of re-titulation and as the most important of all causes of organic change is one which is almost independent of altered and perhaps suddenly altered physical conditions, namely the mutual relation of organisms to organisms,—the improvement of the organism tending to the improvement of the environment of the organism, that the amount of organic change in the fossils of one series of formations is probably served as a fair measure of the relation of the organism to its environment. A number of species, however, keeping in body might remain for a long period unchanged, whilst within the same period several of these species by migrating into new countries and coming into competition with foreign associates, might become modified so that must therefore rate the accuracy of organic change as measure of time.

In future I see possibilities for more important researches. Philosophy will be securely based, the foundation already well laid by Mr Herbert Spencer, that the necessary acquirement of each mental power and capacity by gradualness. Much light will be thrown on the origin of man and his history.

As the first highest man seems to be fully satisfied with the world with each species has been independent created. To my mind it accord better with what we know of the laws impressed on matter by the Creator that the product and extinction of the past and present inhabitants of the world should have been due to secondary causes, like those determining the birth and death of the individual. While I would all beings not as special creations, but as the lineal descendants of some few species which lived long before the first bed of the Cambrian period as depicted, they seem to me to become ennobled by dying from the past, we may safely infer that the number of living species will transmit progeny of any kind to far distant future of the manner in which all organisms being are produced, show that the great number of species is increasing, and all the species in many genera, have

the large and dominant groups within which the law of limitation is pre-arranged and proceeds

we may feel certain that the ordinary success in biological science has been broken, and that the cataclysm has desolated the whole world. Hence we may look with some confidence to a secure future of great length and as natural selection works solely by and for the good of each being, all corporeal and mental endowments will tend to progress towards perfection.

It is interesting to contemplate a tangled bank, clothed with many plants of many kinds, with birds singing on the bushes, with various insects flitting about, and with worms crawling through the damp earth, and to reflect that these simple little organisms, which have thus constructed the whole, so different from each other and deeply different from each other in so complex a manner have all been produced by laws acting around us. These laws, taken in the largest sense being Growth with its production, Inheritance which is almost implied by reproduction, Variability from the indirect and direct action of the conditions of life, and from use and disuse, a Rati- fication increase so high as to lead to the Struggle for Life, and as consequence to Natural Selection, determining the degree of Character and the Extinction of less-improved forms. Thus, from the war of nature from famine and death, the most exalted object which we are capable of conceiving, namely the production of the high animals, directly follows. There is grandeur in this view of life, with its several powers, having been originally breathed by the Creator into a few forms, and then, by the law of the fixed law of gradation, from so simple beginning, and so few forms, most wonderful and beautiful, and are being evolved.

naturalists as sufficient to raise both forms to the rank of species

Hereafter we shall be compelled to acknowledge that the only distinction between species and well marked varieties is that the latter are known or believed to be connected at the present day by intermediate gradations where as species were formerly thus connected Hence without rejecting the consideration of the present existence of intermediate gradations shall be led to believe higher than we have seen them

It is quite possible that forms now generally acknowledged to be merely varieties may hereafter be thought worthy of specific names and in this case scientific and common language will come into accordance In short we shall

Since this may not be a cheering prospect but we shall at least be free from the vain search for the undiscovered and undiscoverable essence of the term species

The other and more general departments of natural history will rise greatly in value

Some of the characters rudimentary and aborted organs &c will cease to be metaphorical and will have a plain signification When we no longer look at an organic being as a savage looks at a ship as something wholly beyond his comprehension when we regard every production of nature as one which has had a long history when we contemplate every complex structure and instinct as the summing up of many contrivances each useful to the possessor in the same way as any great mechanical invention is the summing up of the labour the experience the reason and even the blunders of numerous workmen when we thus view each organic being how far more interesting—I speak from experience—does the study of natural history become!

A grand and almost untrodden field of inquiry will be opened on the causes and laws of variation on correlation on the effects of use and disuse on the direct action of external conditions, and so forth The study of domestic productions will rise immensely in value A new variety raised by man will be a more important and interesting subject for study than one more species added to the infinitude of already recorded species. Our classifications

will come to be as far as they can be so made genealogies and will then truly give what may be called the plan of creation The rules for classifying will no doubt become simpler when we have a definite object in view We possess no pedigrees or armoial bearings and we have to discover and trace the many diverging lines of descent in our natural genealogies by characters of any kind which have long been inherited Rudimentary organs will speak infallibly with respect to the nature of long lost structures Species and groups of species which are called aberrant, and which may fancifully be called living fossils, will aid us in forming a picture of the ancient forms of life Embryology will often reveal to us the structure in some degree obscured of the prototype of each great class

When we feel assured that all the individuals of the same species and all the closely allied species of most genera, have within a not very remote period descended from one parent and have migrated from some one birth place and when we better know the many means of migration then by the light which geology now throws and will continue to throw on former changes of climate and of the level of the land we shall surely be enabled to trace in an admirable manner the former migrations of the inhabitants of the whole world Even at present, by comparing the differences between the inhabitants of the sea on the opposite sides of a continent, and the nature of the various inhabitants on that continent, in relation to their apparent means of immigration some light can be thrown on ancient geography

The noble science of Geology loses lost from the extreme imperfection of the record The crust of the earth with its imbedded remains must not be looked at as a well filled museum but as a poor collection made at hazard and at rare intervals. The accumulation of each great fossiliferous formation will be recognised as having depended on an unusual concurrence of favourable circumstances

late as strictly contemporaneous two formations, which do not include many identical species by the general success of the former of life As species are produced and exterminated by slowly acting and still existing causes,

GLOSSARY

OF THE PRINCIPAL SCIENTIFIC TERMS USED IN THE PRESENT VOLUME

ABERRANT. Forms or groups of animals or plants which deviate in important characters from their nearest allies, so as not to be easily included in the same group with them, are said to be aberrant.

ABERRATION. (in Optics). 1. The refraction of light by a concave lens the rays passing through different parts of the lens are brought to focus at slightly different distances.—this is called *spherical aberration*, at the same time the coloured rays are separated by the prismatic action of the lens and likewise brought to focus at different distances,—this *chromatic aberration*.

ABNORMAL. Contrary to the general rule.

ABORTED. An organ is said to be aborted, when its development has been arrested at a very early stage.

ALBINOISM. Albinos are animals in which the usual colouring matters characteristic of the species have not been produced—the skin and its appendages. Albinism is the state of being albinos.

ALGÆ. A class of plants including the ordinary seaweeds and the filamentous freshwater corals.

ALTRIA. **GENERATION.** This term is applied to a peculiar mode of reproduction which prevails among many of the low animals, in which the egg produces a young form quite different from its parent, but from which the parent form is reproduced by process of budding, or by the division of the substance of the first product of the egg.

AMMONITES. A group of fossil, spiral, chambered shells, allied to the existing nautilus, but having the partition between the chambers divided into complicated patterns at their junction with the outer wall of the shell.

ANALOG. That resemblance of structures which depends upon similarity of function, as in the wings of insects and birds. Such structures are said to be *analogous*, and to be *analogous* of each other.

ANIMALCULE. A minute animal generally applied to those visible only by the microscope.

ANNELIDS. A class of worms in which the surface of the body exhibits more or less distinct divisions into rings or segments, generally provided with appendages for locomotion and with gills. It includes the ordinary marine worms, the earthworms, and the leeches.

ARTICULAR. Jointed organs appended to the head in

insects, Crustaceans and cephalopodes, and not belonging to the mouth.

ANTHERA. The summit of the stamens of flowers, in which the pollen-fertilising dust is produced.

APLAENT MIA. **APLAENTATA** or **APLAENTAL MAMMALS.** See **MAMMALIA**.

ARCHETYPAL. Of or belonging to the Archetype or original form upon which all the beings of a group seem to be organised.

ARTICLE. A part or division of the animal kingdom characterised generally by having a given surface of the body divided into parts called segments, great or less number of which are furnished with jointed legs (such as insects, crustaceans and cephalopodes).

ASYMMETRICAL. Having the two sides unlike.

ATROPHIED. Arrested in development at a very early stage.

BALANUS. The genus including the common acorn-shells which abundantly cover the rocks of the sea-coast.

BATRACHIA. A class of animals allied to the reptiles, but undergoing peculiar metamorphosis, in which the young animal is generally aquatic and breathes by gills. (Examples, frogs, toads,

and salamanders.)

bodied animals, furnished with a valvular shell, attached to submarine objects by stalks, which pass through an aperture one of the valves, and furnished with fringed arms, by the action of which food is carried to the mouth.

BRANCHIAL. Gills or organs for respiration in water.

BRANCHIAL. Pertaining to gills or branchia.

CAMBRIAN SYSTEM. A series of very ancient Palæozoic rocks, between the Laurentian and the Silurian. Until recently these were regarded as the oldest fossiliferous rocks.

CANIDÆ. The dog-family including the dog, wolf, fox, jackal, &c.

CARAPACE. The shell enveloping the anterior part of the body in crustaceans generally applied also to the hard shelly pieces of the cirripedes.

CARBONIFEROUS. This term is applied to the great formation which includes, among other rocks, the coal-measures. It belongs to the oldest, or Palæozoic, system of formations.

CATAD. Of or belonging to the tail.

CERATALPODE. The highest class of the Mollusca, soft-bodied animals, characterised by having the

I am indebted to the kindness of Mr. W. S. Dallas for the Glossary which has been given because several readers have complained to me that some of the terms used were unintelligible to them. Mr. Dallas has endeavoured to give the explanations of the terms in as popular a form as possible.

FLORA. The totality of the plants growing naturally in country or during given geological period.

FLOWERS. Flowers imperfectly developed in some reports, and collected into dense spike or head, as in the grasses, the dandelion, &c.

FETAL. Of or belonging to the foetus, or embryo in course of development.

FOSSILIFEROUS. A class of animals of very low organization, and generally of small size having jelly like body from the surface of which delicate filaments can be given off and retracted for the prehension of external objects, and having calcareous or sandy shell, usually divided into chambers, and perforated with small pertures.

FOSSILIFEROUS. Containing fossils.

FOSSILIFEROUS. Having faculty of digging. The Fossilifera Hymenoptera are a group of wasp-like insects, which burrow in sand soil to make nests for their young.

FRISTUM (pl. FRISTA). A small band or fold of skin.

FRUIT (also FRUIT). A class of cellular plants, of which mushrooms, toadstools, and moulds, are familiar examples.

FRONTAL. The forked bone formed by the union of the cranial bones in many birds, such as the common owl.

GALLINACEOUS BIRDS. An order of birds of which the common fowl, turkey and pheasant, are well-known examples.

GALLINAE. The genus of birds which includes the common fowl.

GASGLOVE. A swelling, or knot from which nerves are given off as from centre.

GASGLOVE FISHES. Fishes covered with peculiar named bony scales. Most of them are extinct.

GEMMATE VESICLE. A minute vesicle in the eggs of animals, from which developement of the embryo proceeds.

GLACIAL PERIOD. A period of great cold and of enormous extension of ice upon the surface of the earth. It is believed that glacial periods have occurred repeatedly during the geological history of the earth, but the term is generally applied to the time of the Tertiary epoch, when nearly the whole of Europe was subjected to arctic climate.

GLAND. An organ which secretes or separates some particular product from the blood or sap of animals or plants.

GUSTATA. The opening of the windpipe to the oesophagus or gullet.

GUTTER. A sick approaching granite in composition, but more less laminated, and really produced by the alteration of sedimentary deposit after its consolidation.

GRACULINAE. The so-called sailing-birds, storks, cranes, apes, &c., which are generally furnished with long legs, bare of feathers above the body, and have no membranes between the

GRANITE. A rock consisting essentially of crystals of felspar and mica in mass of quartz.

HABITAT. The locality in which plant or animal naturally lives.

HEMPTERA. An order sub-order of insects, characterized by the possession of a jointed beak or rostrum, and by having the fore-wings horny in the basal portion and membranous at the extremity, here they cross each other. This group includes the various species of bugs.

HETEROMERITE. Possessing the organs of both sexes.

HOMOLOGOUS. That relating between parts which results from their development from corresponding embryonic parts, either in different animals, as in the case of the arm of man, the fore-limb of quadrupeds, and the wing of bird, or the same individual, as in the case of the fore and hind limbs of quadrupeds, and the segments or rings and their appendages of such the body of worm, centipede, &c., is composed. The latter is called serial homology. The parts which stand in such relation to each other are said to be homologous and no such part organs called the homologue of the other. In diverse plants the parts of the flower are homologous, and generally these parts are regarded as homologous with leaves.

HOMOPTERA. A order of sub-order of insects having (like the Hemiptera) jointed beak, but in which the fore-wing are wholly membranous or wholly leathery. The Cicada, fro hoppers, and Aphides, are well-known examples.

HYBRID. The offspring of the union of two distinct species.

HYMENOPTERA. An order of insects possessing a biting jaw and usually four membranous wings in which there are few veins. Bees and wasps are familiar examples of this group.

HYPERTROPHIC. Excessively developed.

ICHNEUMONINAE. A family of hymenopterous insects, the members of which lay their eggs in the bodies or eggs of other insects.

IMAGO. The perfect (generally winged) reproductive state of an insect.

INDIGENES. The aboriginal animal or vegetable inhabitants of country or region.

INFLORESCENCE. The mode of arrangement of the flowers of plants.

INVERTEBRATA. A class of microscopic animalcules, so called from their having originally been observed in infusions of vegetable matters. They consist of gelatinous material enclosed in delicate membrane the whole or part of which is furnished with short bristling hairs (called cilia), by means of which the animalcules swim through the water or convey the minute particles of their food to the orifice of the mouth.

INSECTIVOROUS. Feeding on insects.

INVERTEBRATA. A. or INVERTEBRATE ANIMALS. Those animals which do not possess backbone or spinal column.

mouth surrounded by a greater or less number of fleshy arms or tentacles which in most living species, are furnished with sucking-cups (*Exoplas cuttle-fish inutilus*)

CETACEA An order of Mammalia including the whale, dolphin, &c.

CHELONIA An order of reptiles including the turtle, tortoise, &c.

CIRRIPEDES An order of crustaceans including the barnacle and acorn shells. Their young resemble those of many other crustaceans in form but when mature they are always attached to their objects, either directly or by means of a stalk and their bodies are enclosed by a calcareous shell composed of overlapping plates two of which can open to give issue to a bunch of curled jointed tentacles, which project at the limbs.

Coccus, The genus of insects including the cochineal. In this case the male is a minute winged fly and the female generally a motionless berry-like mass.

COCOON A case usually of silky material in which insects are frequently enveloped during the second or resting stage (pupa) of their existence. The term cocoon stage is here used as equivalent to pupal stage.

CELOSPERMOUS A term applied to those fruits of the Umbelliferae which have the hollowed on the surface.

COLEOPTERA beetles an order of insects having a biting mouth and the first pair of wings more or less horny forming sheaths for the second pair and usually meeting in a tight hind with the middle of the back.

COLUMN A peculiar arrangement of the flow of orchids in which the fan-shaped stigmas (or the reproductive parts) are united.

COMPOSITE or **COMPOSITUS PLANTS**, Plants in which the inflorescence consists of numerous small flowers (florets) brought together into a dense head the base of which is enclosed by common bracts (*Euphorbia* &c.)

CONSERVÆ, The filamentous weed *Cladophora*.

CONJUGATE A rock made up of fragments of rock or pebbles joined together by some mineral.

COROLLA The second envelope of a flower usually composed of colored leaf-like organs (petals) which may be united by their edges either at the basal part or throughout.

CORRELATION, The numerical coincidence of phenomena on either side with another.

COYNE A bunch of flowers in which the perianth is propped up by the stalks of the flowers as to be nearly naked with the perianth.

COTYLEDONS, The first seed leaves of plants.

CUSTACEA, A class of united small leaves of the kind of the body generally in the form of a cone by the disposition of calcareous matter.

breathing by means of gills (*Exoplas crab, lobster shrimp &c.*)

CURCULIO The old generic term for the beetle known as weevils characterized by their jointed feet adapted by the head being produced into a sort of beak upon the sides of which the antennae are inserted.

CUTANEOL Of or belonging to the skin.

DEGRADATION The wearing down of land by the action of the sea or of meteoric agencies.

DENUDATION The wearing away of the surface of the land by water.

and the old wood (exogenous growth) and by the reticulation of the veins of the leaves. The parts of the flowers are generally numerous of five.

DIFFERENTIATION The partition or discrimination of parts or organs which in a number of forms of life are more or less united.

DIMORPHIC Having two distinct forms — Dimorphism is the condition of the appearance of the same species under two distinct larval forms.

DIOECIOUS Having the organs of the sexes upon distinct individuals.

DIORITE, A peculiar form of granite.

DORSAL Of or belonging to the back.

EDENTATA A peculiar order of quadrupeds characterized by the absence of at least the mandible (so (front) teeth in both jaws). (*Euphrasia*, the

containing the true genus of flight.

EMBRYO The young animal undergoing development in the egg or womb.

EMBRYOLOGY The study of the development of the embryo.

the animal proper to the hills and valleys of the species in which.

EPHEMERAL INSECTS Insects allied to the May fly.

FALCON The falcon family of the birds; naturally in-
y

FLORA. The totality of the plants growing naturally in country or during given geological period.

FLOWERS. Flowers imperfectly developed in some respects, and collected into dense spike or head, as in the grasses, the dandelion, &c.

FOLLIC. Of or belonging to the follicle, or embryonic case of development.

FORAMINIFERA. A class of animals of very low organization, and generally of small size having a shell like body from the surface of which delicate filaments can be given off and retracted for the prehension of external objects, and having calcareous or sandy shell, usually divided into chambers, and perforated with small apertures.

FOSSILIFEROUS. Containing fossils.

FOSSEIL. Having faculty of digging. The Fossorial Hymenoptera are a group of wasp-like insects, which burrow in sandy soil to make nests for their young.

FACIES (pl. **FACIES**). A small band or fold of skin.

FUNGUS (sing. **FUNGUS**). A class of cellular plants, of which mushrooms, toadstools, and moulds, are familiar examples.

FURCULA. The forked bone formed by the union of the collar-bones in many birds, such as the common fowl.

GALLINACEOUS BIRDS. An order of birds of which the common fowl, turkey and pheasant, are well-known examples.

GALLIN. The genus of birds which includes the common fowl.

GANGLION. A swelling or knot from which nerves are given off as from a tree.

GANOID FISHES. Fishes covered with peculiar enamelled bone scales. Most of them are extinct.

GERMINAL VESICLE. A minute vesicle in the eggs of animals, from which development of the embryo proceeds.

GLACIAL PERIOD. A period of great cold and of enormous extent of ice upon the surface of the earth. It is believed that glacial periods have occurred repeatedly during the geological history of the earth, but the term is generally applied to the close of the Tertiary epoch, when nearly the whole of Europe was subjected to arctic climate.

GLAND. An organ which secretes or separates some peculiar product from the blood or sap of animals or plants.

GLUTTER. The veining of the windpipe of the quadruped animal.

GRANITE. A rock approaching granite in composition, but more or less laminated, and really produced by the intrusion of sedimentary deposit after its consolidation.

GRALLATORIA. The so-called wading-birds (orks, cranes, snipes, &c.), which are generally furnished with long legs, bare of feathers above the knee, and have no membranes between the toes.

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HABITAT. The locality in which plant or animal naturally lives.

HEMIPTERA. A sub-order of insects, characterized by the possession of jointed beak, rostrum and having the fore-wings horny, the basal part of the membrane at the extremity where they cross each other. This group includes the various species of bugs.

HETEROMORPHIC. Possessing the organs of both sexes.

HOMOLOGOUS. That relating between parts which result from their development from corresponding embryonic parts, either in different animals, as the case of the arm of man, the fore-leg of quadruped, and the wing of bird or the same individual, as the case of the fore and hind legs of quadrupeds, and the segments or rings and their appendages of which the body of worm, or caterpillar, &c. is composed. The latter is called *serial homology*. The parts which stand such relation to each other are said to be homologous and each part organ called the *homologous* of the other. In different plants the parts of the flower are homologous, and generally these parts are regarded as homologous to leaves.

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HYBRID. The offspring of the union of two distinct species.

HYMENOPTERA. A order of insects possessing jointed wings and usually four membranous wings in which there are few veins. Bees and wasps are familiar examples of this group.

HYPERTROPHIC. Excessively developed.

HYMENOPTERA. A family of hymenopterous insects, the members of which lay their eggs in the bodies or eggs of other insects.

IMAGO. The perfect (generally winged) reproductive state of an insect.

INDIGENES. The original animal or vegetable inhabitants of country or region.

INFLORESCENCE. The mode of arrangement of the flowers of plants.

INFUSORIA. A class of microscopic animalcules, so called from their having originally been observed in infusions of vegetable matters. They consist of gelatinous material enclosed in a delicate membrane the whole or part of which is furnished with short bristling hairs (called cilia), by means of which the animalcules swim through the water or other fluid, the minute particles of their food to the orifice of the mouth.

INSECTIVOROUS. Feeding on insects.

INVERTEBRATA. or **INVERTEBRATE ANIMALS.** Those animals which do not possess backbone or spinal column.

mouth urrou ded by a gr ater or l s numb r of
fl hy rms r tent cles which in most liv g
speces re fur ied with sucking cup (*Ex
mpt s cuttle-f h i autulus*)

CETACEA An ord r of Mamm la including the
wh les d lphins &c. having the form f the
body fish like tle skin naked and only the f re-
l nbs developed

CHELONIA An rder f rept les includi g the tur-

th s of mny othe crustacean in form but
when mature they are al ays attach d to their
objects e ther d rectly or by mean of ast lk and
the r bodies are encl ed by a c leareous hell
c mposed of several piec s two f h ch can pen
to g ve issue to a bunch of curled jointed tenta-
cles wh ch repre ent th limb

Coccus The g nus of insects includ ng th cochi-
i al In the ethem l is an nut i ged fly a d
the female generally a m tio les berry like
m

COCOON A case usually of silky mat rial in wh ch
ects re frequetly envel ped d ring the seco d
or re ting stage (p pa) of th ir ist ce The
term c coon stage is here used as equi alent to
pupa stage

CELOSPERMOTS A term appl ed to those fru ts of
the Umbell f re h ch b ve th seed hollowed on
the in rf ce

COLEOPTERA b tle an rder f insects ha i g
b t g m uth nd th first par f w g s m re r
less horny f rm g heaths for the econd p
and u ually meeting in a stra ght l e down the
m ddle of the back

COLUMN A peculi r g n in the flowers of orchids
i i i h the tamens tyle and stigm (r the re-
product e parts) ar united

COMPOSITE COMPOSITOUS PLANTS Plants in
h ch the fl resc nce c i sts of numerous m ll
flo es (fl ets) bro gitt g tler int a den e
le d the base of wh ch is l ed by a commo
en cl pe (*F a fte the d y i del* &c)

CONFERVAE Th filam ntous weds f fch tr
CONGLOMERATE A rock m de p off gm ts f
rock p bbl s e me ted t gether by s me ther
n t al

COROLLA The eeo d e v l pe f a flow r usu lly
c npos d f l ur d le f like rg (p tals)
h h m y b u ted by th r dg s e th r n the
basal p rt r t through ut

C r t l l rmal co n d ce of phe-

breathing by me ns of gills (*Example s cr b,
lobster h imp &c*)

CURCULIO The old gener e term f r the beetles
kno n as vee ls cla acterised by their fur-
jo nted feet and by the h d being produced to
a sort of be k up n the s des of hich the anten-
nae re inserted

CUTANEOUS Of or belong g to the skin.

DEGRADATION The v eering do n of l nd by the
action f the ea r of meteor c gencies.

DENUDATION The we r g away f the surf ce of
tle l d by v t r

DEVONIAN SYSTEM r form t ion A seri s of P lro-
c rocks i clud g the Old Red s nd to

DICOTYLEDONS r DICOTYLEDONOUS PLANTS, A clas
of pl ts charact rised by havi g t seed l s es,
by the format n of n wood b t e ntl bark
and the old w od (ex g nous gro th) d by
the ret culution f the ins f the lea s. The
p rts of th flow rs are geter lly i i n ultples of
fi e

DIFFERENTIATION The par tion o d scrimi t n
of p rt or organ wh ch su pl r f rms d l f
a e n re or less united

DIECIOUS H i g the o g s of the xes upo dis-
t et n d d ls

DIORITE A p uli r f rm f gre nst ne

DORSAL Of r belong g t the back

EDENTATA A peculiar rder f q adrupeds, har-
acter sed by th b ence f t l ast th m d d l o-
c r (f o t) t th i botf ja s (*Example the*

Et

co t tute the t e rgais f flight.

EMBRYO Th young i al d goug d l p-
ment t l the gg r w o b

EMBRYOLOGY Th tudy of the dev lopme t of th
embryo

ENDEMIC l ecular to a g en locality

ENOMOST A di n f the class C ustacea.

-

are g rally f mall ze

Eocene Th a l u t f the t l ce d v o r s f the
T r t y poch f geol g ts Rock f l i s g con-
ta n m ll pr p ti f h lls ide t cal th
pec e i l i g

EPHEMERALS I sects, I sect ll ed t the M f s f

FALN The t t l ty f the n m ls turaly in-
h h

CHUR CEANS A lass f t uated m
the kn of the body ge rally n e r l s h rd
en d by the depo tion of calcareous m ttr

FLA -

FERAL H v ng become wild from tate of culti-
t n or d mest cation

- FLORA, Th t tality f th pla ts gro g tur-
ally in country duri g g geol g cal
- FLORETS, Fl ers mperfectly d l ped som
respects, d collected t d nse pk h d
as in the grasses, th da d l &c.
- FOTAL, Of bel ngi ng t th fetus, bry
- GRA, A rock co is t gresse t ally f crystals f
f l p d mas of q ts.
- HABIT, Th local ty t l a pla t m l
t rally l ca
- HELM PT, t rd b-order of sects, char-
et l by tl poss as of ted be k
root d by ha g th f re- g h)
tl b l t nd in mb us th ttm
ty l re tl) rosa h ther Th gro p
r ves f bugs.
- th ca f tl r d th f rel g d juat
i i t) g f l rd th sam i
- f th r y g
- FRE. TM (pl. FREN) A mall b d f ld f skin.
FVN (sing FVN VN) A class of cellular pl ts, f
huch mushrooms, toadstools, nd m ulds, are
familiar ampl s.
- FECTI, Th f ked bo f rmed by th f
th collar-bo es m y brds, uch as th com
m f l.
- GALLI ED B RDS, A rd of birds f which
th comm f wl, turk y d ph as t, re
ll-kn mples
- G LIA, Th g us f brd h h clud th com
m f l
- GA. LU A ll g k t from h ch rves re
g f as from ce tre
- GA. FISHER, fish cu red th peculiar na
lled b y scal Most f th m are t l.
- GERM VES LE, A mu t escl th gg f
omals, from l ch d rel pin t f th mbry
proceeds
- GLACI LERI A p od f gre t cold d f
m us t ns f ce po th urf ce of th
arh It is bel ed th t gla l periods h
occurred repe tedly dur g th geol g cal history
f th th, b t th t rm is g ll ppld
t th lse of th T tiary poch h ly
th h l f Europe as bjected t ret
lim t
- GLA A g huch eer t separates som
pecul p od et from th blood sap f m ls
pla ts
- GLUTINA, Th pe g f th dp pe t th
as pl gu gull t
- C EBRA, A rock pp each ggr t co po t n,
b t m re less laminated, d really prod ced
b th lter : f sedum tary d po taft ts
co uol dat
- GRALLA ES, Th o-called d g buds (t ka,
cra es pes, &c.) huch are g rally fur
led th l ng legs, bare of f th ra bo tl
becl, nd ha m mbranes bet ee th
tws.
- ped a v ~ ~ ~ sch relat
h mol gy Th p ts l h t d nd
t h th re sa d t be h molog nd
uch p rt g called tl h molog d tl
the l d ff re t pla ts tl parts of the fl
re h m l g us, d ge l these p t re re-
garded as h k gous th)
- II M PTERA A rd h o l f sects ha
(lik th II m pt ra) ted baak, b t h h
th f re- g re th h lly men bra us
h lly l th r y Th C cadæ fr g h i pe s, d
Aph d s, are ll-k mples,
- II a, Th off pri g of th m of t d t t
- — —
- I n EUM A f ly f hym pt ro is
sects, th m mbers f h h ly th k t tl
bod gg of th sects.
- IM O, Th perfect (ge lly ged) reproduct
t t f sect.
- I E. ES, Tl bo g l mal s t bl n-
h b ta ts of co try gi u.
- I LO ESCE E, Th mod f rra g m t f tl
fers of pla ts.
- I FT UA A las f m roseop imal ules, so
called from th r ha g g ally bee bserved
su. f re et bl m tl ra. Th y co t f
g lat us m t l losed d leat
bra th h l p t f h h fur hed tl
h t brat g hairs (called l) by ns f
h ch th m l l m thro gh th t
co y th m t p rt l f th r food t th
fice f tl th
- I ECTI s, l ed g sects.
- I ES LB I ER EBRA A MALE, Thos
m ls h b d t possess backb p l
colum

THE PORTION WHICH RISES TO ARTICULATE WITH THE SKULL IS CALLED THE ASCENDING MANDIBLE.

RANGE. The extent of country over which a plant or animal is naturally spread. *Range in time* expresses the distribution of a species or group through the fossiliferous beds of the earth's crust.

RETINA. The delicate inner coat of the eye formed by nervous filaments spreading from the optic nerve and serving for the perception of the impressions produced by light.

RETROGRESSION. Backward development. When an animal as it approaches maturity becomes less perfectly organised than might be predicted from its early stages and known relationships it is said to undergo a *retrograde development* or *metamorphosis*.

RHIZOPODS. A class of lowly organised animals (Protozoa) having a gelatinous body the surface of which can be protruded in the form of rootlike processes or filaments which serve for locomotion and the prehension of food. The most important order is that of the Foraminifera.

RODENTS. The growing Mammalia such as the rats, rabbits and squirrels. They are especially characterised by the possession of a single pair of chisel-like cutting teeth in each jaw between which and the grinding teeth there is a gap.

RUBUS. The bramble genus.

REDUPLICATION. Very imperfectly developed.

RUMINANTS. The group of quadrupeds which ruminate or chew the cud such as oxen, sheep and deer. They have divided horns and are destitute of front teeth in the upper jaw.

SACRUM. Denoting the sacrum or the bone composed usually of two or more united vertebrae to which the sides of the pelvis in vertebrate animals are attached.

SARCODE. Denoting the gelatinous material which the bodies of the low animals (Protozoa) are composed of.

SCUTELLUM. The horny plates with which the feet of beetles are generally more or less covered peculiarly in frost.

SEDIMENTARY DEPOSITS. Rocks deposited as sediments from water.

SEGMENTS. The transverse rings of which the body of an articulate animal is composed.

SEALS. The seals or gaskets of the cylinder of the telescope of a modern rifle. They are usually gaskets to meet more brightly coloured.

SEMITURES. The thickened feet.

SESSILE. Not supported on a stem or footstalk.

SILICIAN SYSTEM. A recent system of fossils from rocks belonging to the higher part of the Palaeozoic.

SPECIALISATION. The setting apart of a particular function for a particular purpose.

SPINAL COLUMN. The central part of the nervous system with the lateral white substance in the brain through the cerebellum and the spinal cord.

STAMENS. The male organs of flowering plants, standing in a circle with the petals. They usually consist of a filament and an anther the latter being the essential part in which the pollen or fecundating dust is formed.

STERNUM. The breast bone.

STIGMA. The apical portion of the petal or anther.

TARSUS (pl. Tarsi). The foot of an insect, usually consisting of several segments.

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TARSUS (pl. Tarsi). The foot of an insect, usually consisting of several segments.

Warts. The circles or spiral lines in which the parts of plants are arranged upon the axis of growth.

Wozzles. See *deutera*.

Zoëta. *z.* The earliest stage in the development of many of the higher Crustacea, so called from the name of *Zoe* applied to these young animals when they were supposed to constitute peculiar *genæ*.

Zooids. In many of the lower animals (such as the corals, Medusæ, &c.) reproduction takes place two ways, namely by means of eggs and by process of budding, with or without separation from the parent of the product of the latter which is often very different from that of the egg. The individuality of the pieces is represented by the whole of the form produced between the sexual reproductions and these forms, which are apparently individual animals, have been called *zooids*.

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t sual or son.
t t Col r th gh mm to both fl d s
t x l lect On the d ppe ne f pol i
stripe n ad li q d ped O th ol nd a
m t flt q ad na. S mm y

a ds battles f O namental ppend g St g
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INTRODUCTION

THE NATURE of the following work will be best understood by a brief account of how it came to be written. During many years I collected notes on the origin and descent of man, with a view to a popular history of the subject, but rather with the design to write a popular history, as I thought it should thus only add to the prejudice against my work. It seemed to me sufficient to direct in the first edition of my *Origin of Species* that by this work "light would be thrown on the origin of man and his history" and this implies that man must be included with the game beings in any general conclusion respecting his manner of appearance on the earth. In the case of wars which differ in aspect. When naturalist like Carl Vogt is free to say in his address as President of the National Institute of Germany (1869) "per se enim Europa moris et plus te vultu est etiam dependente et dicitur per se aspectus" it is manifest that at least a large number of naturalists must admit that species are thus modified descent of the species and thus especially hold good with the

attention may be directed but these great classes of facts afford as it appears to me ample and conclusive evidence in favour of the principle of gradual evolution. The strong support derived from the other arguments should however always be kept before the mind.

The sole object of this work is to consider firstly whether man, like every other species, is descended from some pre-existing form secondly the manner of his development and thirdly the affinities of the differences between the so-called races of man. As I shall confine myself to these points, it will not be necessary to describe in detail the differences between the several races—an enormous subject which has been fully discussed many able workers. The high antiquity of man has recently been demonstrated by the labours of Huxley, Murchison, and others and this is the indisputable basis for and standing his origin. I shall, therefore take this conclusion for granted and merely refer my readers to the admirable treatises of Sir Charles Lyell, Sir John Lubbock, and others. I shall also occasionally refer to the allusion to the amount of

usually are till proposed to be in any form

In consequence of this work was published by most naturalists, and which will ultimately as in every case be followed by the results are scientific, I have been led to put together my notes, so as to see how far the general conclusions arrived at in former works were applicable to man. Thus seemed all the more desirable as I had intended to liberally apply these principles to species taken singly. When we confine attention to the human form, we are deprived of the weight of arguments derived from the nature of the affinities which connect the whole group of primates—their geographical distribution in past and present times, and their geological process. The biological truths, embryological development, and rudimentary parts of species remain to be considered which the human animal, to which we

primarily

This work contains hardly any original facts in regard to which I have drafted, though I have and considerably been asserted that the human race can be known better than ignorance in frequently begot confidence than does knowledge. I therefore write with much hesitancy. I assert that this is the problem which will be solved by science. The conclusion that man is descended from other species is somewhat new and unexpected. I am not in any degree a Lamarckian, but I came to this conclusion, which has lately been maintained by several eminent naturalists and philosophers, for instance, by Wallace, Huxley, Lyell, and others.

Lubbock Büchner Rolle &c¹ and especially by Haeckel. This last naturalist besides his great work *Generelle Morphologie* (1866) has recently (1868 with a second edit. in 1870) published his *Natürliche Schöpfungsgeschichte* in which he fully discusses the genealogy of man. If this work had appeared before my essay had been written I should probably never have completed it. Almost all the conclusions at which I have arrived I find confirmed by this naturalist whose knowledge on many points is much fuller than mine. Wherever I have added any fact or view from Prof. Haeckel's writings I give his authority in the text; other statements I leave as they originally stood in my manuscript occasionally giving in the foot notes references to his works as a confirmation of the more doubtful or interesting points.

During many years it has seemed to me highly probable that sexual selection has played an important part in differentiating the races of man but in my *Origin of Species* (11th edition p. 43) I contented myself by merely alluding to this belief. When I came to apply this view to man I found it indispensable to treat the whole subject in full detail.² Consequently the second part of the present work treating of sexual selection has extended to an inordinate length compared with the first part but this could not be avoided.

I had intended adding to the present volumes an essay on the expression of the various emotions by man and the lower animals. My attention was called to this subject many years ago by Sir Charles Bell's admirable work. This illustrious anatomist maintains that man is endowed with certain muscles solely for the sake of expressing his emotions. As this view is obviously opposed to the belief that man is descended from some other and lower form it was necessary for me to consider it. I likewise wished to ascertain how far the emotions are expressed in the same manner by the different

published by Dr. Francesco Braccaglini bearing in Italy the title of *Man in the image of God* was also made in the image of the ape.

works.

Part One

Descent or Origin of Man

CHAPTER I

THE EVIDENCE OF THE DESCENT OF MAN FROM SOME LOWER FORM

to us are clear

ance with the law which permits us to
lower animals. Again, are the animals the
resist, as far as the law permits us to
to dig for the minerals, and are they
governed by the same general laws, as in the
case of the general laws of the body, corre-
lation, the combined effects of sense and dis-
sense, &c.? Is man subject to malarial con-
fusions, the result of arrested development of
reduplications of parts, &c. and does he play
the same role as to some of

fraternal and we will first see how far the
bodily structure of man shows traces, more or
less plain, of his descent from some lower form.
In succeeding chapters the mechanical powers of
man in comparison with those of the lower
animals, will be considered.

The Bodily Structure of Man. It is notori-
ously true that on the same gen-

So it is with his muscles, nerves, bones, and
internal organs. The brain is the most im-
portant of all the organs, and follows the same law
as shown by Huxley and other anatomists.
Bischoff, who said that the same admits that
the cerebral fissure and fold in the brain of man
has its analogy in that of the orang-utan
period of development.

entirely new point

perieu ni bien m mes il ne s't pas e
f d'ill na à et ég d L'homme est bien
pl pr s des ges n'h pomorph pa les
ca acier nat m ques d ere q e
ce -c ne le d lem nt des au s
m m f es mais mem de ert ns q adru

Thence we would come to the
point, where man tends to be
at so point, as to lead to occasional se-
rious struggles for existence and conse-
quently to be fatal at times, while the body
mind being preserved and injurious
injected. The aspect of man,
while the mind is applied to each
and place and the so that some finally
become it? We shall see that all these
questions, as decided by the respect to
most of them must be answered that af-
firmative, in the same manner as with the
lower animals. But the several conditions
just referred to may be completely deferred

the high mammae
brain and all the parts of the body

G. H. Ruvand, gen d Mens hen, 1868 n. 96.
The conclusions of this thesis are that those of
Grati let d A by co cerns g th bra will be
discussed by Prof Huxley the paper dix pag
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Les su la Phy 1866 p 590 as quoted by M.
Dally, *L'Ord des Primates et le T form me,*
1868, p. 29

and to communicate to them certain diseases as hydrophobia variola the glanders syphilis cholera herpes &c.³ and this fact proves the close similarity⁴ of their tissues and blood both in minute structure and composition far more plainly than does their comparison under the best microscope or by the aid of the best chemical analysis. Monkeys are liable to many of the same non-contagious diseases as we are thus Rengger⁵ who carefully observed for a long time the *Cebus a arax* in its native land found it liable to catarrh with the usual symptoms.

and cataract in the eye. The younger ones when shedding their milk teeth often died from fever. Medicines produced the same effect on them as on us. Many kinds of monkeys have a strong taste for tea coffee and spirituous liquors they will also as I have myself seen smoke tobacco with pleasure.⁶ Brehm asserts that the natives of north eastern Africa catch the wild baboons by exposing vessels with strong beer by which they are made drunk. He has seen some of these animals which he kept in confinement in this state and he gives a laughable account of their behaviour and strange grimaces. On the following morning they were very cross and dismal they held their aching heads with both hands and wore a most pitiable expression when beer or wine was offered them they

Dr W. Lauder Lindsay has tested this subject at some length in the *Journal of Mental Science* July 1871 and in the *Edinburgh Quarterly Review* July 18 8

turned away with disgust but relished the juice of lemons.⁷ In correspondence

lower animals these trifling

affected

Man is infested with internal parasites, sometimes causing fatal effects and is plagued by external parasites all of which belong to the same genera or families as those infesting other mammals and in the case of scabies to the same species.⁸ Man is subject like other mammals birds and even insects⁹ to that mysterious law which causes certain normal processes such as gestation as well as the maturation and duration of various diseases to follow lunar periods.¹⁰

capacities during an early embryonic period occasionally possess some power of regeneration as in the lowest animals.¹¹

The whole process of that most important function

young Monkeys are born in almost as helpless a condition as our own infants and in certain genera the young differ

Brehm *Illustrated Zoology* B. 1864 5 96 On the 11 105 For the reasons

Dr W. Lauder Lindsay *Edinburgh Quarterly Review* July 1871 p 13

With respect to insects see Dr Laycock, *On the Geology of the North American*

the number of periods could be added. *Journal of Mental Science* July 1871 p 13 and *Edinburgh Quarterly Review* July 18 8

about fluids by the same chemical agents. *Journal of Mental Science* July 1871 p 50

The same is recommon to some animals much in the same way. *Journal of Mental Science* July 1871 p 50. The Queen Land in Australia three individuals of the *Phaenocarpa crebra* that, which has been taught in the same way acquired a strong taste for rum and for smoking tobacco.

is more probable that the same is more probable. *Journal of Mental Science* July 1871 p 50. The Queen Land in Australia three individuals of the *Phaenocarpa crebra* that, which has been taught in the same way acquired a strong taste for rum and for smoking tobacco.

DESCENT OF MAN FROM SOME LOWER FORM

CHAP. I

full as much in appearance from the adults, as do our children from their full-grown parents. It has been urged by some writers, as an important distinction, that the human embryo arrives at maturity at a much later age than with any other animal but if we look to the races of mankind which inhabit tropical

countries, the two sexes of man, mammals, so that the correspondence of general structure in the minutest structure of the tissues, in chemical composition and in constitution, between man and the higher animals, especially the anthropomorphous ones, is extremely close.

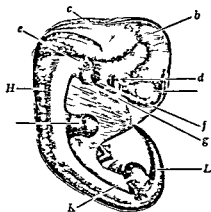
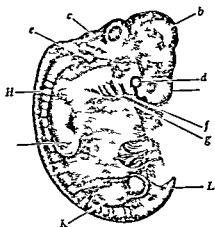


Fig. 1 Upper figure human embryo, from Ecker. Lower figure that of dog, from Buschhoff.

a. Fore-brain, or brain hemisphere, &c.
b. Mid-brain, corpora quadrigemina.
c. Hind-brain, cerebellum, medulla oblongata.
d. Eye.
e. Ear.
f. First visceral arch.
g. Second visceral arch.
h. Vertebral columns and muscle in process of development.
i. Anterior extremities.
k. Posterior extremities.
L. Tail or coccyx.

*This remark is made with respect to Cynocephalus and the anthropomorphous species by Geoffroy Saint-Hilaire and P. Cuvier. *Histoire Nat. de Mammifères*, tom. 1, 1824.

very early period can be seen in the members of the same class. At this period the arteries run in

from posterior to anterior, somewhat like the period when the trematodes are developed, the feet of lizards and mammals, as the illustrious Baron Bae remarks, the wings and feet of birds, no less than the hand and feet of man, all arise from the same fundamental form. It is, say Prof Huxley, quite in the latest stages of development that the young human being presents marked difference from the ungulate, while the latter departs as much from the dog in its development, as the man does. Startling as this assertion may appear to be, it is demonstrably true.

As soon as my readers may have seen a drawing of an embryo, I have given one of man and another of dog, tabo. 1, the same arrangement of development, carefully copied from two works of undoubted accuracy.

After the foregoing tabo. 1, made by such high authorities, it would be perfectly so to compare part to part a number of borrowed tails,

Huxley M. Place in Nat. 1863, p. 34.
M. Place Nat. 1863, p. 67.

*The human embryo (upper fig.) is from Ecker. *Icones Phy.* 1861 1859 tab. xxx. fig. 2. This embryo was taken at the 17th day, so that the drawing is much magnified. The embryo of the dog is from Buschhoff. *Entwickelungsgeschichte der H. und F.* 1842, tab. xi., fig. 42. This drawing is five times magnified, the embryo being twenty-five days old. The internal viscera have been omitted, and the terne appendages in both drawings removed. I was directed to these figures by Prof Huxley from whose work, *M. Place Nat.* the idea of giving them was taken. Haeckel has also given analogous drawings in his *Schöpfungsgeschichte*.

shewing that the embryo of man closely resembles that of other mammals. It may however be added that the human embryo likewise resembles certain low forms when adult in various points of structure. For instance the heart at first exists as a simple pulsating vessel the excreta are voided through a cloacal passage and the os coccyx projects like a true tail extending considerably beyond the rudimentary legs.¹⁸ In the embryos of all air-breathing vertebrates certain glands called the corpora Wolffiana correspond with and act like the kidneys of mature fishes.¹⁷ Even at a later embryonic period some striking resemblances between man and the lower animals may be observed. Bischoff says that the convolutions of the brain in a human foetus at the end of the seventh month reach about the same stage of development as in a baboon when adult.¹⁸ The great toe as Professor Owen remarks¹⁹ which forms the fulcrum when standing or walking is perhaps the most characteristic peculiarity in the human structure but in an embryo about an inch in length Prof Wyman²⁰ found that the great toe was shorter than the others and instead of being parallel to them projected at an angle from the side of the foot thus corresponding with the permanent condition of this part in the Quadrumana. I will conclude with a quotation from Huxley²¹ who after asking does man originate in a different way from a dog bird frog or fish says The reply is not doubtful for a moment without question the mode of origin and the early stages of the development of man are identical with those of the animals immediately below him in the scale without a doubt in these respects he is far nearer to apes than the apes are to the dog.

Rudiments. This subject though not intrinsically more important than the two last will for several reasons be treated here more fully.²² Not one of the higher animals can be

I of Wyman in *Proceedings of the American Academy of Sciences* vol. iv. 1860 p. 17.

¹⁷ *Anatomy of Vertebrates* vol. i. p. 533.

¹⁸ *Die Geschichte der Menschheit*, 1868.

named which does not bear some part in a rudimentary condition and man forms no exception to the rule. Rudimentary organs must be distinguished from those that are nascent though in some cases the distinction is not easy. The former are either absolutely useless such as the mammae of male quadrupeds or the incisor teeth of ruminants which never cut through the gums or they are of such slight service to their present possessor that we can hardly suppose that they were developed under the conditions which now exist. Organs in this latter state are not strictly rudimentary but they are tending in this direction. Nascent organs on the other hand though not fully developed are of high service to their possessors and are capable of further development. Rudimentary organs are eminently variable and this is partly intelligible as they are useless or nearly useless and consequently are no longer subjected to natural selection. They often become wholly suppressed. When this occurs they are nevertheless liable to occasional reappearance through reversion—a circumstance well worthy of attention.

The chief agents in causing organs to become rudimentary seem to have been disuse at that period of life when the organ is chiefly used (and this is generally during maturity) and also inheritance at a corresponding period of life. The term disuse does not relate merely to the lessened action of muscles but includes a diminished flow of blood to a part or organ, from being subjected to fewer alternations of pressure or from becoming in any way less habitually active. Rudiments however may occur in one sex of those parts which are normally present in the other sex and such rudiments as we shall hereafter see have often originated in a way distinct from those here referred to. In some cases organs have been reduced by means of natural selection from having become injurious to the species under changed habits of life. The process of reduction

has done all that can fairly be attributed to it, and when the saving to be effected by the economy of growth would be very small²³ are difficult to understand. The final and complete suppression of a part already useless and much

²³ *Dom good or criticism in this subject has been*
by Mr. Muriel d. M. art in *Transactions*
Zoological Society 1868. L. vii. p. 92.

after collecting all the known evidence on this head concludes that the external shell is of no distinct use. The ears of the chimpanzee and orang are curiously like those of man and the proper muscles are likewise but very slightly developed.²⁰ I am also assured by the keepers in the Zoological Gardens that these animals never move or erect their ears so that they are in an equally rudimentary condition with those of man as far as function is concerned. Why these animals as well as the progenitors of man should have lost the power of erecting their ears we can not say. It may be though I am not satisfied with this view that owing to their arboreal habits and great strength they were but little exposed to danger and so during

rectly in front or behind. They are variable in size and somewhat in position standing either a little higher or lower and they sometimes occur on one ear and not on the other. They are not confined to mankind for I observed a case in one of the spider monkeys (*Atelæ belzebuth*) in our Zoological Gardens and Mr E. Ray Lankester informs me of another case in a chimpanzee in the gardens at Hamburg. The helix obviously consists of the extreme margin of the ear folded inwards and this folding appears to be in some manner connected with the whole external ear being permanently pressed backwards. In n

tu that of those large and heavy birds which from inhabiting oceanic islands have not been exposed to the

an move the head in a horizontal plane so as to catch sounds from all directions. It has been asserted that the ear of man alone possesses a lobule but a rudiment of it is found in the gorilla²¹ and as I hear from Prof Preyer it is not rarely absent in the negro.

The celebrated sculptor Mr Woolner informs me of one little peculiarity in the external ear which he has often observed both in men and women and of which he perceived the full significance. His attention was first called to the subject whilst at work on his figure of Puck to which he had given pointed ears. He was thus led to examine the ears of various monkeys and subsequently more carefully those of man. The peculiarity consists in a little

he in
esent,
of

Mr Meyer more frequently in man than in woman. Mr Woolner made an exact model of one such case and sent me the accompanying drawing (fig 2). These points not only project inwards towards the



Fig 2 Human Ear modelled and drawn by Mr Woolner

a. The projecting point

the ear is slightly pointed and the margin is not at all folded inwards but if the margin were to be thus folded a slight point would necessarily project inwards towards the centre and probably a little outwards from the plane of the ear and thus I believe to be their origin in many cases. On the other hand Prof L. Meyer in an able paper recently published²² maintains that the whole case is one of mere variability and that the projections are not real ones, but are due to the internal cartilage on each side of the point not

is minute points or the whole margin is sinuous. I have myself seen through the kindness of Dr L. Down the ear of a micro-

²⁰See also in the drawings of the ears of the Lemur, the Marsupial, the Rat, the Pig, the T. na of one of the Zoological Society, 1869 pp 6 and 90.

²¹Über das Dorsal sch. p. 120. A. h. f. Path. Anat. d. Hy. 1871 p. 483.

²⁰Prof A. Macalister *Annals and Magazine of Nat. History* vol. v. 1871 p. 342.

²¹Mr St. George Mivart, *Elementary Zoology* 1873 p. 390.

does not warn them of danger nor guide them to their food nor does it prevent the Esquimaux from sleeping in the most fetid atmosphere nor many savages from eating half putrid meat. In Europeans the power differs greatly in different individuals as I am assured by an eminent naturalist who possesses this sense highly developed and who has attended to the subject. Those who believe in the principle of gradual evolution will not readily admit that the sense of smell in its present state was originally acquired by man as he now exists. He inherits the power in an enfeebled and so far

animals which have this sense highly developed such as dogs and horses the recollection of persons and of places is strongly associated with their odour and we can thus perhaps understand how it is as Dr. Manley has truly remarked²⁷ that the sense of smell in man is singularly effective in recalling vividly the ideas and images of forgotten scenes and places.

Man differs conspicuously from all the other

that of a woman. The different races differ much in hairiness and in the individuals of the same race the hairs are highly variable not only

quite
tufts
the hair

rudiments of the uniform hairy coat of the lower animals. This view is rendered all the more probable as it is known that fine short, an iron coloured hairs on the limbs and other

inherited. These hairs too seem to have their representatives for in the chimpanzee and in certain species of *Macacus*, there are scattered hairs of considerable length rising from the naked skin above the eyes and corresponding to our eyebrows. Similar long hairs project from the hairy covering of the superciliary

month is thickly covered offers a more curious case. It is first developed during the fifth month on the eyebrows and face and especially round the mouth where it is much longer than that on the head. A moustache of this kind was observed by Eschricht²⁸ on a female fetus but this is not so surprising a circumstance as it may at first appear for the two sexes generally

of the foetal body are the same as in the adult, but are subject to much variability. The whole surface including even the forehead and ears, is thus thickly clothed but it is a significant fact that the palms of the hands and the soles

coat of hair in those mammals which are born hairy. Three or four cases have been recorded of persons born with their whole bodies and faces thickly covered with fine long hairs and this strange condition is strongly inherited,

the lanugo of a fetus

I am informed by Sir James Paget that often several members of a family have a few hairs in their eyebrows much longer than the others so that even this slight peculiarity seems to be

²⁷The *Ichthyology and Zoology of Maryland* 2nd ed. 1868 p. 134.

²⁸Eschricht, *Über die Bildung des menschlichen Körpers*. Müller *Ichthyofauna* und *Phylog.* 1837 s. 47. I shall then have to refer to this very curious paper.

²⁹Paget, *Lectures on Surgical Pathology* 1853 vol. 1 p. 71.

by a surgeon to a hospital for children have their backs covered by rather long silky hairs and such cases probably come under the same head.

It appears as if the posterior molar or wisdom teeth were tending to become rudiments

retained during both fetal and

ary is the more civilized races of man. These teeth are rather smaller than the theromylars, as is likewise the case with the corresponding teeth in the chimpanzee and orang and they have only two separate fangs. They do not cut through the gums till about the seventeenth year and I have been assured that they are much more reliable to decay and are a great deal more than the teeth but this is denied by some of the dentists. They are also much more liable to arrive both true and

rudim

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Can trinnas can v u --
man It is occasionally quite absent, or again
largely developed. The passage is sometimes
completely closed for half or two-thirds of its
length with the terminal part consisting of a
flattened solid expansion. In the orang the ap-

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really sound they also differ from the theromylars in size, less than the Caucasian races.⁴² Prof Schaaffhausen accounts for the difference between the races by the position of the mouth of the jaw when the jaw is shut in those that are civilized⁴³ and this habit may I presume, be attributed to the civilized man habitually feeding on soft, cooked food and thus using the jaw less. I am informed by Mr Brace that it is becoming quite common practice in the United States to remove some of the molar teeth of children, as the jaw does to grow large and the perfect development of the jaw is the result.

With respect to the alveolar canal, I have met with an account of only a single rudiment,

the case of the alveolar canal fact is that it is
heard two instances thus side to small hard
bodies, such as seeds, entering the passage,

look like process of bone completed by a
band of ligament. Dr Struthers,⁴⁴ who has
loosely attributed to the subject, has not shown
that this peculiarity is sometimes noticed, as
it has occurred in a few and in less than
a few of his specimens of children. When present
the great nerve in the artery passes through it
and this clearly indicates that the bone is mo-
lign and rudiment of the pre-condylar
of the jaw of the lower animals. Prof Turner
tunes, as he tells me, that it occurs in
about one percent of recent skeletons. But if
this occasionally happens in this true re-
man, as seems probable to be the case, it
is a retention of a rudimentary part of the jaw, be-
cause in the high Quadruman it is absent.

actually more than three as long as the whole
body.⁴⁵ It sometimes proceeds to a large
gradually tapering point, and is sometimes
constricted in parts. It appears as if in conse-
quence of changed habits, the caecum
had become in the habit of the animal
mammals, the rudimentary part being left as a

Dr Hübner, Teeth in Man and the Anthropoid
Apes, as quoted by Dr C. Cart Blak in *Anthropo-
logical Review* July 1867, p. 299.

⁴²On the Anatomy of the Vertebrates, vol. III, pp. 320
21, and 325.

⁴³On the Primates of the Skull, Eng-
land, in *Anthropological Review* Oct., 1868, p.
426.

Prof V. tegazza writes to me from Florence,
that he has lately been studying the last molar teeth
in the different races of man, and has come to the
same conclusion as that given by me, viz. that
in the higher civilized races they are the road
to a more trophy luminous.

⁴⁴Owen, *Anatomy of the Vertebrates*, vol. III, pp. 416
424, 441.

that this peculiar structure in man see his *Great
Art and Anomalies*, p. 63. See also imports
memorandum this process by Dr Grube in the *Bulle-
tin de l'Acad Imp de St. Pétersbourg* tom. III, 1867
p. 448.

There is another foramen or perforation in the humerus occasionally present in man which may be called the *foramen*

It is remarkable that this perforation seems to have been present in man much more frequently during ancient times than recently. Mr. Busk¹ has collected the following evidence on this head of Broca

noticed the perforation in four and a half per cent of the arm bones collected in the Cimetiere du Sud at Paris and in the Grotto of Orrony the contents of which are referred to the Bronze period as many as eight humeri out of thirty two were perforated but this extraordinary proportion he thinks, might be due to the cavern having been a sort of family vault. Again M Dupont found thirty per cent of perforated bones in the caves of the Valley of the Lesse belonging to the Reindeer period whilst M Leguay in a sort of *dolmen* at Argenteuil observed twenty five per cent to be perforated and M Iruner Bey found twenty six per cent in the same condition in bones from Vaureal. Nor should it be left unnoticed that M Iruner Bey states that this condition is common in Guanche skeletons. It is an interesting fact that ancient races in this and several other cases more frequently present structures which resemble those of the lower animals than do the modern. One chief cause seems to be that the ancient races stand somewhat nearer in the long line of descent to their remote animal like progenitors.

In man the os coxæ together with certain other vertebræ hereafter to be described though functionless as a tail plainly represent this part in other vertebrate animals. At an early embryonic period it is free and projects beyond the lower extremities as may be seen in the drawing (fig. 1) of a human embryo. Even after birth it has been known in certain rare and anomalous cases³² to form a small external rudiment of a tail. The os coxæ is

¹⁰Mr St Geo g M rt T act I h l Soc
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short, usually including only four vertebrae all closely together and these are in a rudimentary condition for they consist with the exception of the basal one of the centrum alone.¹⁴ They are furnished with some small muscles one of which as I am informed by Prof. Turner has been expressly described by Theile as a rudimentary repetition of the extensor of the tail a muscle which is so largely developed in many mammals.

The spinal cord in man extends only as far downwards as the last dorsal or first lumbar vertebra but a thread-like structure (the *filum terminale*) runs down the axis of the sacral part of the spinal canal and even along the back of the coccygeal bone. The upper part of this filament as Prof Turner informs me is undoubtedly homologous with the spinal cord but the lower part apparently consists merely of the *pia mater* or vascular investing membrane. Even in this case the os coccyx may be said to possess a vestige of so important a structure as the spinal cord though no longer enclosed within a bony canal. The following fact for which I am also indebted to Prof Turner shows how closely the os coccyx corresponds with the true tail in the lower animals. Luschka has recently discovered at the extremity of the coccyx

C. A. Krause and Meyer to examine the tail of a monkey (*Macacus*) and of a cat in both of which they found a similarly convoluted body, though not at the extremity.

The reproductive system offers various rudimentary structures but these differ in no important respect from

t o c v and represented in the thirly a
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 of such rudiments, as difficult to explain on
 the belief of the separate creation of each pe-
 cies, as in the foregoing cases. Hereafter I shall
 have to recur to the e rudiments, as I shall
 shew that they p es nee generally lepen is
 merely on inheritance that is, on parts acquired
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 n f e r t u b e f e e

18. 1) over a Irish f Zoology Decr 184
sq) O of A t f I mb 1849 p 114

that the I all in the place only go some instance of such rudiments. It is well known that in the males of all mammals, such rudimentary mammae exist. These in several instances have become wild and have yielded copiously of milk. They are especially noted in the case of such animals as the whale, the seal, the bat, the reptile, &c., can't first hardly be distinguished from each other. In order to understand the existence of rudimentary organs, we have only to suppose that a former progenitor possessed the parts in question; a perfect state and that undischarged habits of life they became greatly reduced in the course of simple use or through the natural selection of those individuals which were least encumbered with a perfect use part, aided by the means previously indicated.

"I acknowledge both the law of the

those mammals which truly manifest rudimentary structures, the males of the same species likewise but rarely. Some other rudimentary structure belonging to the reproductive system in man has been already added."

The bearing of the three great classes of fact now given is unmistakable. But it would be perfectly full to recapitulate the line of argument given in the last chapter of *Species*. The human male constructed of the whole frame in the members of the same class is not distinguishable if we admit the descent from common progenitor together with the necessary adaptation to diversified conditions. On the other hand, the similarity of pattern between the hand of man and the foot of the horse, the flipper of the seal, the wing of the bat, &c., is equally plain. It is scientific plan on it to assert that they have all been formed on the same general plan. With respect to the human, we can clearly understand the principle of antiperversion, rather late in the period and be united to corresponding period in

it is the embryos of wonderful different forms which still retain more or less perfectly the structure of the common progenitor. No explanation has been given of the many facts that the embryos of man, dog, seal, bat, reptile, &c., can't first hardly be distinguished from each other. In order to understand the existence of rudimentary organs, we have only to suppose that a former progenitor possessed the parts in question; a perfect state and that undischarged habits of life they became greatly reduced in the course of simple use or through the natural selection of those individuals which were least encumbered with a perfect use part, aided by the means previously indicated.

Then we understand how it has come to pass that man and all other vertebrate animals have been constructed on the same general model, which pass through the same series of development, and which retain certain rudiments in common. Consequently we ought frankly to admit the communism of descent to take any other way is to admit

the animal series, and consider the difference derived from their affinity or classification, their geographical distribution and geological successions. It is not our natural prejudice

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the structure and development of man, and other mammals, should be regarded that which was the work of separate acts of creation.

(I use a just Count von's) mere metaphysical principle, namely, the preservation in its integrity of the mammalian nature of the animal. I only in cases does he discuss rudiments, and then only, those parts which are partially rudimentary, such as the little bones of the pectoral axis, which do not touch the ground, these he has clearly to be of service to the animal. It is unfortunate that he did not consider such cases as the human teeth, which are cut through the jaw in the ox, or the mammae of male quadrupeds, or the wings of certain beetles, existing on the so-called wing-covers, or the edges of the pupil and lamina in various flows, and man, the such cases. Although I greatly admire Prof. Bianconi's work, yet the belief which I hold, most natural, is that the left unshaken, that homological structures are inseparable on the principle of mere adaptation.

Leuckart in Todd (*Cyclopaedia of Anatomy* 1849-52, p. 141) says this organ is by from three to six lines in length, but like so many other rudimentary parts is variable in length and position in the various species.

— — — this by itself, On the *Journal of the*

Prof. Bianconi, in recently published work, has treated the admirable organs (La *Theoria* *Darwin* as to the creation of the human body) and shows that homologous structures, in the bone and other cases, can be found planned mechanical principles, according to their uses. He has also shown how admirable such structures are adapted for their final purpose and thus the law can be better planned through natural selection. I consider, the ingenuity, he brings forward (p. 1) but appears to me

There is another foramen or perforation in the humerus occasionally present in man which may be called the inter condyloid. This occurs but not constantly in various anthropoid and other apes⁴⁰ and likewise in many of the lower animals. It is remarkable that this perforation seems to have been present in man much more frequently during ancient times than recently. Mr Busk¹ has collected the following evidence on this head. Prof Broca noticed the perforation in four and a half per cent of the arm bones collected in the Cimetière du Sud at Paris and in the Grotto of Origny the contents of which are referred to the Bronze period as many as eight humeri out of thirty two were perforated but this extraordinary proportion he thinks might be due to the cavern having been a sort of family vault. Again M Dupont found thirty per cent of perforated bones in the caves of the Valley of the Lesse belonging to the Reindeer period whilst M Leguay in a sort of *dolmen* at Argenteuil observed twenty five per cent to be perforated and M Pruner Bey found twenty six per cent in the same condition in bones from Vaureal. Nor should it be left unnoticed that M Pruner Bey states that this condition is common in Guanche skeletons. It is an interesting fact that ancient races in this and several other cases more frequently present structures which resemble those of the lower animals than do the modern. One chief

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M St George Martineau et al. 1860 p 310
Ogilby of Gb. It. T. n. et al. 1860 p 159
Inde of C. G. f. I. h. l. 1860 p 159
Th. n. 1860 p 159
L. (f. r. h. l. n. l. Report I. body M. m. 1871 p 20)

short usually including only four vertebrae all ankylosed together and the sacrum is in a rudimentary condition for they consist with the exception of the basal one of the centrum alone.⁴⁴ They are furnished with some small muscles one of which as I am informed by Prof Turner has been expressly described by Heide as a rudimentary repetition of the extensor of the tail a muscle which is so largely developed in many mammals.

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of the spinal canal and even along the back of the coccygeal bones. The upper part of this filament as Prof Turner informs me is undoubtedly homologous with the spinal cord but the lower part apparently consists merely of the pia mater or vascular investing membrane. Even in this case the os coccyx may be said to possess a vestige of so important a structure as the spinal cord though no longer enclosed within a bony canal. The following fact for which I am also indebted to Prof Turner shews how closely the os coccyx corresponds with the true tail in the lower animals. Luschka has recently discovered at the extremity of the coccygeal bones a very peculiar convoluted body which is continuous with the middle sacral artery and this discovery led Krause and Meyer to examine the tail of a monkey (*Macacus*) and of a cat in both of which they found a similarly convoluted body though not at the extremity.

The reproductive system offers various rudimentary structures but these differ in an important respect from the foregoing cases. Here we are not concerned with the vestige of a part which does not belong to the penis in an efficient state but with a part efficient in the one sex and represented in the other by a mere rudiment. Nevertheless the occurrence of such rudiments is as difficult to explain as the chief of the separate creation of each species, as in the foregoing cases. Hereafter I shall have to recur to these rudiments and I shall shew that their presence generally implies merely an inheritance that in parts acquired by one sex having been partially transmitted

this sub rect. R. n. d. C. Sec. 1860 p 159
1863 p 159
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of the lower animals though the facts are copious enough with respect to the latter. So regard to mental qualities, their transmission is manifest in our dogs, horses, and other domestic animals. Besides special tastes and habits, general intelligence, courage, bad and good temper, &c., are certainly transmitted. With man we see similar facts in almost every family and we now know through the admirable labours of M. Galton,¹¹ that genius which implies a wonderful combination of high faculties, tends to be inherited and, on the other hand, it is too certain that idiotism and deteriorated mental powers likewise run in families.

With respect to the causes of variability we are all cases everywhere but we can see that in man as in the lower animals, the variation is in some relation to the conditions to which each species has been exposed, during several generations. Domesticated animals are more than those in state of nature and this is apparent to the diversified and changing nature of the conditions to which they have been subjected. In this respect the diverse races of man resemble domesticated animals, and so do the individuals of the same race who inhabit the various areas, like that of America. We see the influence of diversified conditions in the more civilized nations for the members belonging to different grades of rank, and following different occupations, present greater range of character than do the members of barbarous nations. But the uniformity of savage has often been exaggerated, and some cases can hardly be said to exist. It is, nevertheless, an error to speak of man, if we look only to the conditions to which he has been exposed, as far more domesticated than any other animal. Some savage races, such as the Australians, are not exposed to more diversified conditions than are many species which have a wide range. In another and much more important respect, man differs widely from an entirely domesticated animal for his breeding has a long

Hereditary Genius as it Relates to its Law and Consequences, 1869.

M. B. Les remarks (*The Naturalist* on the Americans, 1863, vol. ii., p. 139) with respect to the Indians of the same South American tribe, most of them were similar in the shape of the head, one had an oval visage with fine features, and another was quite Mongolian in breadth and prominence of cheek, spread of nostrils, and obliquity of eye.

Blumenbach, *Treatise on Anthropology* Eng. transl., 1865, p. 203.

been controlled, either by methodical or unconscious selection. No race or body of men has been so completely subjected by other means, as the certain individuals which would be preserved, and thus unconsciously selected from some well-excelling in utility to their masters. No better certain male and female individuals have been picked out and matched,

—cal selection. It is asserted that many tame men were reared in the villages inhabited by the grenadiers and the tall whites. In Spain, also, a form of selection was followed. It was acted that all children should be examined shortly after birth the well-formed and vigorous being preserved, the others left to perish.¹²

If we consider all the races of man as forming a single species, his range enormous but some separate races, as the Americans and Polynesians, have wide ranges. It is well known that widely ranging species are much more variable than species with restricted ranges and the variability of man may with more truth be compared with that of widely ranging species, than with that of domesticated animals.

Natural does variability appear to be increased in man and the lower animals by the

procreation of mankind. It saw likewise that wealth often checks the proper action of sexual selection. It thus writes

With kind and horses, Kurrua we proceed
By amiable rules, and choose our breed
For prompt and service at a price
Of sound stock without defect or vice
But, the daily maches that we make,
The price is everything for money sake,
Men marry women for marriage gain
The lust or passion, that wealth has slain,
If you watch his progress with the proud of race,
Thus everything is mixed, noble and base!
If then, in the manner form, and mind,
You find degraded, malingering kind,
Wonder no more my friends! the cause is plain.
And to lament the consequence is vain.

(*The Works of J. Hookham F. etc.*, vol. ii., 1822, p. 331.)

CHAPTER II

ON THE MANNER OF DEVELOPMENT OF MAN FROM SOME LOWER FORM

It is manifest that man is now subject to much variability. No two individuals of the same race are quite alike. We may compare millions of faces and each will be distinct. There is an equally great amount of diversity in the proportions and dimensions of the various parts of the body, the length of the legs being one of the most variable points.¹ Although in some quarters of the world an elongated skull and in other quarters a short skull prevails, yet there is great diversity of shape even within the limits of the same race, as with the aborigines of America and South Australia—the latter a race probably as pure and homogeneous in blood, customs and language as any in existence—and even with the inhabitants of so confined an area as the Sandwich Islands.² An eminent dentist assures me that there is nearly as much diversity in the teeth as in the features. The chief arteries so frequently run in abnormal courses that it has been found useful for surgical purposes to calculate from 1040 corpses how often each course prevails.³ The muscles are eminently variable, thus those of the foot were found by Prof. Turner⁴ not to be strictly alike in any two out of fifty bodies, and in some the deviations were considerable. He adds that the power of performing the appropriate movements must have been modified in accordance with the several deviations. Mr. J. Wood has recorded⁵ the occurrence of 995 muscular variations in thirty-six subjects, and in another set of the same number no less than 558 variations, those occurring on both sides of the body being only reckoned as one. In the last set, not one body out of the thirty-six was

found totally wanting in departures from the standard descriptions of the muscular system given in anatomical text books. A single body presented the extraordinary number of twenty-five distinct abnormalities. The same muscle sometimes varies in many ways, thus Prof. Macalister describes⁶ no less than twenty distinct variations in the *palmaris accessorius*.

The famous old anatomist, Wolff⁷ insists that the internal viscera are more variable than the external parts. *Nulla particula est quæ non aliter et aliter in aliis se habeat hominibus*. He has even written a treatise on the choice of typical examples of the viscera for representation. A discussion on the *beau idéal* of the liver, lungs, kidneys, &c. as of the human face, divine, sounds strange in our ears.

The variability or diversity of the mental faculties in men of the same race, not to mention the greater differences between the men of distinct races, is so notorious that not a word need here be said. So it is with the lower animals. All who have had charge of menageries admit this fact, and we see it plainly in our dogs and all other domestic animals. Brehm especially insists that each individual monkey of those which he kept tame in Africa had its own peculiar disposition and temper; he mentions one baboon remarkable for its high intelligence, and the keepers in the Zoological Gardens pointed out to me a monkey belonging to the New World division, equally remarkable for intelligence. Rengger also insists on the diversity in the various mental characters of the monkeys of the same species which he kept in Paraguay, and this diversity, as he adds, is partly innate and partly the result of the manner in which they have been treated or educated.⁸

I have elsewhere⁹ so fully discussed the sub-

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mission of the most trifling as well as of the most important characters in man than in any

Proc. R. Ir. Acad. Sci. 1868 p. 141
178 rt. u. p. 217

vol. — 1844
Transactions of the Royal Society of Edinburgh,
vol. xxiv. pp. 175, 189
Proceedings Royal Society 1867 p. 544 also 1868
pp. 483, 524. There is a previous paper 1866 p. 229

tion, vol. ii. chap. xii.

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copious with respect to the latter. So in
 regard to mental qualities, their transmission

When we see similar facts aim

served and thus unaccountably selected from
some lower beings, utility to the master.
Noble creatures male and female individuals
fitted to live peacefully and mated

With respect to the sex variability we
are all cases of the same thing, an
that man as the animals, they
stand in some relation to the condition to
which each species has been posed. The
sexual differences. Domesticated animal
are more than those of the wild and
thus apparently due to the domesticated and
changing the condition as to which
they have been subjected. In this respect the
difference of man resembles the domesticated
animals, and so the differences of the same
race which inhabiting every part of the world,
that the American. We then infer that the
social condition of man resembles that
of the domesticated animals, and the different grades
of rank, and the different occupations,
present greater and greater differences than do
the members of the same species. But the
uniformity of the same species has been exag-
gerated and some cases can hardly be said
to exist. It is, nevertheless, an important
fact of man, if we look only to the conditions
to which he has been exposed as far as re-
spect to domesticated animals. Some
species of man, such as the Italians, are not
exposed to the same conditions as the
other many species which have been domesticated. In
another instance, the most important respect,
man differs widely from any other domesticated
animal in his breeding habits.

Hereditary Genius I query its Law and
Consequences 1869

M. B. T. remarks (The Naturalist on the Ameri-

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the same species, the same conditions, the same
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more numerous than the species with the
more domesticated animals. The variability of man is
more than compared with the very different
species, than with the domesticated
animals.

Not only does nobility appear to be
degraded in man and the lower animals by the

II thus write

With the noblest as the most we proceed
By the noblest as the most we proceed
For the noblest as the most we proceed
Of the noblest as the most we proceed

If you match his strength with the proudest
Thus every day is mixed, noble and base
If then, the noblest as the most we proceed
I find us degraded, molley kind,
Under no more my friend the noblest
And to lament the consequence

yes.
Blumebach Treatise Anthropol. Eng.
translat., 1865 p. 203

(The Work of J. Hookham Ferris, vol. 11, 182, p.
34.)

same general causes but in both the same parts of the body are effected in a closely analogous manner. This has been proved in such full detail by Godron and Quatrefages that I need here only refer to their works.¹⁴ Monstrosities which graduate into slight variations are likewise so similar in man and the lower animals that the same classification and the same terms can be used for both as has been shewn by Isidore Geoffroy St Hilaire.¹⁵ In my work on the variation of domestic animals I have attempted to arrange in a rude fashion the laws of variation under the following heads — The direct and definite action of changed conditions as exhibited by all or nearly all the individuals of the same species varying in the same manner under the same circumstances. The effects of the long continued use or disuse of parts. The cohesion of homologous parts. The variability of multiple parts. Compensation of growth but of this law I have found no good instance in the case of man. The effects of the mechanical pressure of one part on another as of the pelvis on the cranium of the infant in the womb. Arrests of development, leading to the diminution or suppression of parts. The reappearance of long lost characters through reversion. And lastly correlated variation. All these so called laws apply equally to man and the lower animals and most of them even to plants. It would be superfluous here to discuss all of them¹⁶ but several are so important that they must be treated at considerable length.

The Direct and Definite Action of Changed Conditions — This is a most perplexing subject. It cannot be denied that changed conditions produce some and occasionally a con-

as the innumerable structures are concerned which are adapted for special ends. There can however be no doubt that changed conditions induce an almost indefinite amount of fluctuating variability by which the whole organisation is rendered in some degree plastic.

In the United States above 1 000 000 soldiers who served in the late war were measured and the States in which they were born and reared were recorded.¹ From this astonishing number of observations it is proved that local influences of some kind act directly on stature and we further learn that the State where the physical growth has in great measure taken place and the State of birth which indicates the ancestry seem to exert a marked influence on the stature. For instance it is established that residence in the Western States during the years of growth tends to produce increase of stature. On the other hand it is certain that with sailors their life delays growth as shewn by the great difference between the statures of soldiers and sailors at the ages of seventeen and eighteen.

results namely that they did not relate to climate the elevation of the land soil nor even in any controlling degree to the abundance or the need of the comforts of life. This latter conclusion is directly opposed to that arrived at by Villermé from the statistics of

lower orders within the same islands, or between the inhabitants of the fertile volcanic and low barren coral islands of the same ocean¹⁸ or again between the Iugians on the eastern and western shores of their country where the means of subsistence are very dif-

may be urged on the other side at least as far

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precise result Dr Beddoe has lately proved that, with the inhabitants of Britain residence

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and it can hardly be doubted that this is due

and engravers are liable to be short sighted whilst men living much out of doors and especially savages are generally long sighted²⁹ Short sight and long sight certainly tend to be inherited³⁰ The inferiority of Europeans in comparison with savages in eyesight and in the other senses is no doubt the accumulated and transmitted effect of lessened use during many generations for Rengger³¹ states that he has repeatedly observed Europeans who had been brought up and spent their whole lives with the wild Indians who nevertheless did not equal them in the sharpness of their senses The same naturalist observes that the cavities in the skull for the reception of the several sense organs are larger in the American aborigine than in Europeans and this probably indicates a corresponding difference in the dimensions of the organs themselves Blumenbach has also remarked on the large size of the nasal cavities in the skulls of the American aborigines and connects this fact with their remarkably acute power of smell The Mongolians of the plains of northern Asia according to Pallas have wonderfully perfect senses and Richard believes that the great breadth of their skulls across the zygomas follows from their highly-developed sense

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that from continually breathing a rarefied

²⁹It is a superior inferior distinction of the tribe of this to the ordinary range of the length of the visus and the height of the mastoids

³⁰The Variation of Animals and Plants under Domestication vol. i. p. 8

³¹geth ere to 1 g y 8 10 I ha had good opportunities for using the eye and y po f elt the l gias See also Lawrance (L

sa lec nd v liabl body the cau of h rt ght, C'est le t l as d de pre

³²Richard Phil. al History of Man and of the Anthropology of Man by P. L. L. 1844 p. 407

³³Quoted by Richard Leakey in his book The History of Man and the World p. 463

rarefied atmosphere they have acquired chests and lungs of extraordinary dimensions. The cells also of the lungs are larger and more numerous than in Europeans. These observations have been doubted but Mr D Forbes carefully measured many Lymanas an allied race living at the height of between 10 000 and 15 000 feet and he informs me³² that they differ conspicuously from the men of all other races seen by him in the circumference and length of their bodies. In his table of measurements the stature of each man is taken at 1000 and the other measurements are reduced to this standard. It is here seen that the extended arms of the Lymanas are shorter than those of Europeans, and much shorter than those of Negroes. The legs are likewise shorter and they present this remarkable peculiarity that in every Lymanas measured the femur is actually shorter than the tibia. On an average the length of the femur to that of the tibia is as 211 to 250 whilst in two Europeans measured at the same time the femora to the tibiae were as 244 to 230 and in three Negroes as 208 to 241. The humerus is likewise shorter relatively to the forearm. This shortening of that part of the limb which is nearest to the body appears to be as suggested to me by Mr Forbes a case of compensation in relation with the greatly increased length of the trunk. The Lymanas present some other singular points of structure for instance the very small projection of the heel

These men are so thoroughly acclimatised to their cold lofty abode that when for

merly carried eastern plaid by high way a frightful Forbes four survived during

served that they still inherited their characteristic peculiarities. But it was manifest even without measurement that these peculiarities had all decreased and on measurement, their bodies were found not to be so much elongated as those of the men on the high plateau

seen by consulting Mr Forbes's memoir. From these observations, there can I think be no doubt that residence during many generations

³⁴Mr Forbes's list of papers is now published in the Journal of the Ethnological Society of London, new series, vol. ii. 1870 p. 193

erations to great lengths, both direct and indirectly to induce inherited modifications in the proportions of the body."

With gh man may not have been much modified during the last stages of his existence through the increased decreased use of parts, the facts now given shew that his liability in this respect has not been lost and we positively know that the same law holds good with the animals. Consequently we infer that when at present the progress of man were a transitional state and were changing from quadruped into biped, natural selection would probably have been greatly aided by the inherited effects of the increased diminished use of the different parts of the body.

Arrest of Development—There is a difference between arrested development and arrested growth, the parts of the former continue to grow whilst still retaining their early condition. Various monstrosities come under this head and some as the palate are known to be occasionally inhibited. It will suffice for purpose to refer to the arrested brain-development of microcephalic idiots, as described in *Verhandlungen der Naturforschenden Versammlung in Basel*. The skulls are small and the convolutions of the brain are less complex than in normal man. The frontal sinuses, the projecting eyebrows, is largely developed and the jaw are prognathous to an extraordinary degree so that these idiots somewhat resemble the lower types of mankind. The intelligence and most of their mental faculties are extremely feeble. They cannot acquire the power of speech, and are wholly incapable of prolonged attention, but are too highly imitative. They are

food before at the gate. On this is described as often using his mouth and of his hands, whilst hunting for lice. They are often filthy in their habits, and have no sense of decency and several cases have been published of their bodies being remarkably hairy."

Reversion—Many of the cases to be here given, might have been traced under the last heading. When structure is arrested in its development, but still continues to grow, until it closely resembles a corresponding structure in some lower and adult member of the same group, the same sense be considered as case for reversion. The lower members in a group given some of the common proportion was probably constructed and it is hardly credible that complete part, arrested at an early phase of embryonic development, should go on growing so as ultimately to perform its proper function, unless it had acquired the power of doing so early in its existence, when the present exception also arrested structure was normal. The simple brain of a microcephalic idiot, in as far as it resembles that of an ape may in this sense be said to offer case of reversion."

*Prof Laycock sums up the character of brutelike idiosyncrasy by calling them *microcephalic* (*Journal of Mental Science*, July 1867) D. Scott (*The Development of the Mind*, 2nd ed., 1880 p. 10) has observed that imbeciles mangle their food. See this same subject, and the hairiness of idiots, D. Maudsley *Body and Mind*, 1880 pp. 46-51. Pinel has also given striking case of hairiness in an idiot.

In my *Variation of Animals under Domestication* (vol. ii., p. 5) I attributed the not very rare case of perineal rudimentary mammae in women to reversion. I was led to this as probable conclusion, by the additional mammae being generally placed symmetrically to the breast and more especially from one case in which single inferior mammae oc-

ture or trees. We are thus reminded of the slight shewn by almost all bon climbing trees and thus again reminds how lambs and kids, originally alpine animals, delight to frisk any hillock, how small larks also resemble the low animals some the respects thus several cases are recorded of their carefully smelling the ground.

D. Wüch (Landwirtschaftl. Wochenblatt) No. 10, 1869 has lately published interesting essay showing how domestic animals, which live in mountainous regions, have their frames modified.

Memoires sur les Microcephales, 1867 pp. 50, 123, 169 171 184-189.

p. 56, for case given by D. Hand side, in which the brothers exhibited this peculiarity see also

There are other cases which come more strictly under our present head of reversion. Certain structures regularly occurring in the lower members of the group to which man belongs occasionally make their appearance in him though not found in the normal human embryo or if normally present in the human embryo they become abnormally developed although in a manner which is normal in the lower members of the group. These remarks will be rendered clearer by the following illustrations.

In various mammals the uterus graduates from a double organ with two horns to a single organ having a slight internal fold as in the

pig and by Dr Bartl in Reichert and du Bois Reymond. A horn of the uterus is

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provided with a thin wall and is a simple sac of a certain shape. In the lower members of the group it is a simple sac, but in the higher members it is a double organ, each horn being capable of performing the proper office of gestation. In other and rarer cases two distinct uterine cavities are formed, each having its proper orifice and passage. No such stage is passed through during the ordinary development of the embryo and it is difficult to believe though perhaps not impossible that the two simple minute primitive tubes should know how (if such an expression may be used) to grow into two distinct uteri, each with a well constructed orifice and passage and each furnished with numerous muscles, nerves, glands and vessels, if they had not formerly passed through a similar course of development as in the case of existing marsupials. No one will pretend that so perfect a structure as the abnormal double uterus in woman could be the result of mere chance. But the principle of reversion by which a long lost structure is called back into existence might serve as the guide for its full development even after the lapse of an enormous interval of time.

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higher apes and man. The rodents exhibit a perfect series of gradations between these two extreme states. In all mammals the uterus is developed from two simple primitive tubes, the inferior portions of which form the cornua, and it is in the words of Dr Farre by the coalescence of the two cornua at their lower extremities that the body of the uterus is formed in man while in the animals in which no middle portion or body exists the cornua remain ununited. As the development of the uterus proceeds the two cornua become gradually shorter until at length they are lost or as it were absorbed into the body of the uterus. The angles of the uterus are still produced into cornua even in animals as high up in the scale as the lower apes and lemurs.

Now in women anomalous cases are not very infrequent in which the mature uterus is furnished with cornua or is partially divided into two organs and such cases according to Owen repeat the grade of concentrative development attained by certain rodents. Here perhaps we have an instance of a simple arrest of embryonic development with subsequent growth and perfect functional development for either side of the partially double uterus is capable of performing the proper office of gestation. In other and rarer cases two distinct uterine cavities are formed, each having its proper orifice and passage. No such stage is passed through during the ordinary development of the embryo and it is difficult to believe though perhaps not impossible that the two simple minute primitive tubes should know how (if such an expression may be used) to grow into two distinct uteri, each with a well constructed orifice and passage and each furnished with numerous muscles, nerves, glands and vessels, if they had not formerly passed through a similar course of development as in the case of existing marsupials. No one will pretend that so perfect a structure as the abnormal double uterus in woman could be the result of mere chance. But the principle of reversion by which a long lost structure is called back into existence might serve as the guide for its full development even after the lapse of an enormous interval of time.

Forles or Canestrini after discussing the

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for-our, and various analogous cases, as in the same conclusion as that just given. H adduces another instance in the case of the malar bone * which, in some of the Quaternary and other mammals, normally consists of two portions. This is the condition in the human fetus when two months old and through arrested development, sometimes remains thus in man when adult, more especially in the lower primate races. H also Canevin concludes that some ancient progenitor of man must have had this bone normally divided into two portions, which afterwards became fused together. The frontal bone consists of single piece both in the embryo, and in children, and in almost all the lower mammals, it consists of two pieces separated by a distinct suture. This suture occasionally persists more distinctly in man after maturity and more frequently in ancient than in recent crania, especially as Canevin has observed, in those exhumed from the Drift, and belongs to the brachycephalic type. Here again he comes to the same conclusion as in the analogous case of the malar bones. In this, and the instances presented to be given, the cause of ancient races; approaching the lower animals in certain characteristics more frequently than do the modern races, appears to be that the latter tend to some greater distance in the longitudinal descent from their arched semi-human proportions.

Various other anomalies in man, more less analogous to the foregoing, have been advanced but differ in their details, as cases of reversal in these seem not little difficult to descend to extreme lower in the

mammalian series, before we find such structures normally present.*

In man the canine teeth are perfectly functional in the mastoid position. But this is true in the character as O remarks, is indicated by the conical form of the crown, which terminates in an obtuse point, is convex toward and flattened sub-convex toward the base of which the surface there is a feeble prominence. The conical form is best preserved in the Melanian races, especially the Australian. The canine is more deeply implanted and broader than that of the incisors. Nevertheless, this tooth no longer serves man as a special weapon for tearing his enemies or prey. Its function is as far as its proper function is concerned, be considered as rudimentary. In the large collection of human skulls some may be found as Haeckel observes, with the canine teeth projecting considerably beyond the rest in the same manner as in the thropomorphous species, but not a less degree in these cases, pen spaces between the teeth in the lower jaw are left for the reception of the

canine

few are the ancient skulls which have been examined compared to recent skulls, it is an interesting fact that in at least three cases the canines project largely and in the upper jaw they are prominent as normal.

Of the anthropomorphic species the molar also has the canines full developed but

A whole series of cases is given by Isidore Geoffroy St. Hilaire *Hist. de l'homme* t. II, p. 45. A reviewer (*Journal of Anatomy and Physiology* 3 1 1 p. 366) blames me much for not having discussed the numerous cases, which have been recorded, of various parts arrested in their development. It is so that, even in my theory, every transition condition of an organ, during its development, is not only means to, but it is necessary to itself. This does not seem to me necessary to hold good. Why should not variations occur during early period of development having no relation

parts, which have no relation to the formation of the face occur in early period as well as during maturity.

* I also of *Vertebrates*, vol. II, 1863, p. 323.

* *Comparative Morphology* 1866, B. 1 1

* *Journal of Anatomy and Physiology* 1864, p. 1 1

* Carl Buke jaw from La V. left *Anatomical Review* 1867 p. 223. Schaffhausen, vol. 1863, p. 422.

majorities in several human subjects and even to be cannot exclude this possibility of the parts as simple accidental. Another page on this same normal has been published by Dr. S. A. Mott *Beiträge zur Anatomie des Menschen* t. I where he says that traces of the coronoid may be detected in the lower part of adult skulls. He also remarks that more frequently it occurs in prognathous skulls. It is of the lower race has in others we also G. Debonis on the same subject. The lower case of malar and upper malar. Torino, 18 2. Also, E. Mott *Beiträge zur Anatomie des Menschen* t. I 1 1 more recent (rule has in pamphlet the discussion of this bone in lower reference because reviewer without any grounds or scruples, has thrown doubts on my statements.

degree in the considerably act of which I have been assured that women sometimes have considerably projecting canines is no serious objection to the belief that their occasional great development in man is a case of reversion to an ape like progenitor. He who rejects with scorn the belief that the shape of his own canines and their occasional great development in other men are due to our early forefathers having been provided with these formidable weapons will probably reveal by sneering the line of his descent. For though he no longer intends nor has the power to use these teeth as weapons he will unconsciously retract his snarling muscles (thus named by Sir C. Bell) 'so as to expose them ready for action like a dog prepared to fight.

Many muscles are occasionally developed in man which are proper to the Quadrumana or other mammals. Professor Whicovich⁷ examined forty male subjects and found a muscle called by him the ischio pubic in nineteen of them; in three others there was a ligament which represented this muscle; and in the remaining eighteen no trace of it. In only two out of thirty female subjects was this muscle developed on both sides; but in three others the rudimentary ligament was present. This muscle therefore appears to be much more common in the male than in the female sex, and on the belief in the descent of man from some lower form the fact is intelligible; for it has been detected in several of the lower animals and in all of these it serves exclusively to aid the male in the act of reproduction.

Mr J. Wood in his valuable series of papers⁸ has minutely described a vast number of muscular variations in man which resemble

The Anatomy of Experience 1844 pp. 110, 131.

normal structures in the lower animals. The muscles which closely resemble those regularly present in our nearest allies, the Quadrumana, are too numerous to be here even specified. In a single male subject having a strong bodily frame and well formed skull no less than seven muscular variations were observed, all of which plainly represented muscles proper to various kinds of apes. This man for instance had on both sides of his neck a true and powerful *levator claviculae* such as is found in all kinds of apes and which is said to occur in about one out of sixty human subjects.⁹ Again this man had a peculiar abductor of the metatarsal bone of the fifth digit, such as Professor Huxley and Mr Flower have shewn to exist uniformly in the higher and lower apes. I will give only two additional cases: the *acromio-basilar* muscle is found in all mammals below man and seems to be correlated with a quadrupedal gait¹⁰ and it occurs in about one out of sixty human subjects. In the lower extremities Mr Bradley¹¹ found an *abductor ossis metatarsi quinti* in both feet of man; this muscle had not up to that time been recorded in mankind but is always present in the anthropomorphous apes. The muscles of the hands and arms—parts which are so eminently characteristic of man—are extremely liable to vary so as to resemble the corresponding muscles in the lower animals.¹² Such resemblances are either perfect or imperfect yet in the latter case they are manifestly of a transitional nature. Certain variations are more common in man and others in woman without our being able to assign any reason. Mr Wood after describing numerous variations makes the following pregnant remark: 'Notable departures from the ordinary type of muscular structures run in grooves or directions which must be taken to indicate some unknown factor of much importance to a comprehensive knowledge of general and scientific anatomy.'¹³

See 1. 1. 1. Mac lister in *Proc. Ed. Soc. Phil.*
Iris Acad. Med. 1863 p. 124.
¹⁰ *Phil. Mag.* 1871 p. 114.
¹¹ *Phil. Mag.* 1871 p. 114.

the scale are numerous in the Lemuroidea.

See 1. 1. 1. Mac lister in *Proc. Ed. Soc. Phil.*
Iris Acad. Med. 1863 p. 124.
¹⁰ *Phil. Mag.* 1871 p. 114.
¹¹ *Phil. Mag.* 1871 p. 114.

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p p 6 517

present population of the United States (thirty millions) would in ten years cover the whole terraqueous globe so thickly that four men would have to stand on each square yard of surface. The primary or fundamental check to the continued increase of man is the difficulty of gaining subsistence and of living in comfort. We may infer that this is the case from what we see for instance in the United States where subsistence is easy and there is plenty of room. If such means were suddenly doubled in Great Britain our number would be quickly doubled. With civilized nations this primary check acts chiefly by restraining marriages. The greater death rate of infants in the poorest classes is also very important as well as the greater mortality from various diseases of the inhabitants of crowded and miserable houses at all ages. The effects of severe epidemics and wars are soon counterbalanced and more than counterbalanced in nations placed under favourable conditions. Immigration also comes in and as a temporary check but with the extremely poor classes not to any great extent.

acta y less in barbarism than in civilised
 races We know nothing positively on this
 head for with savages no census has been
 taken but from the concurrent testimony of
 missionaries and of others who have long
 resided with such people it appears that their
 families are usually small and large ones rare
 This may be partly accounted for as it is
 believed by the women suckling their infants
 during a long time but it is highly probable
 that savages who often suffer much hard
 ships and who do not obtain so much nutri
 tious food as civilised men would be actually
 less prolific I have seen in a former work ¹²
 that all our domesticated grapevines and
 birches and all our cultivated plants are more
 fertile than the corresponding species in a
 state of nature It is no valid objection to this
 conclusion that animal suddenly supplied
 with an excess of food or when grown very
 fat and that most plants on sudden removal
 from very poor to very rich soil are rendered
 more or less sterile We might therefore ex
 pect that civilised men who in one sense are
 highly domesticated would be more prolific
 than wild men It is also probable that the in
 creased fertility of civilised nations would be

come as with our domestic animals, an inherited character it is at least known that with mankind a tendency to produce twins runs in families.

Notwithstanding that savages appear to be less prolific than civilized people they would no doubt rapidly increase if their number were not by some means rigidly kept down. The Santhal or hill tribes of India have recently afforded a good illustration of this fact for as shown by Mr Hunter⁶⁰ they have increased at an extraordinary rate since vaccination has been introduced. Other pestilences mitigate and war sternly repress. This increase however would not have been possible had not these hill people pruned into the adjoining districts and worked for hire. Savages almost always marry yet there is some prudential restraint for they do not commonly marry at the earliest possible age. The young men are often r

from her parents. With savages the difficulty of obtaining subsistence occasionally limits their number in a much more direct manner than with civilized people for all tribes periodically suffer from severe famines. At such times wags are forced to leave their much bad food and their health can hardly fail to be injured. Many accounts have been published of their perishing, starving and emaciated limbs after an enduring famine. They are then also compelled to wander much and as I was assured in Australia their infants perish in large number. As famines are periodical depending chiefly on extreme seasons and the fluctuation in number. They cannot teach and regularly increase as there is no artificial increase in the supply of food. Savages who hard pressed encroach on each other's territory and war is the result but they are in general almost always at war with their neighbours. They are hostile to many accidents on land and water in their search for food and in one country they suffer much from the effects of prey. Even in India, districts have been depopulated by the ravages of tigers.

Malthus has considered these several checks, but he does not lay the emphasis on what is probably the most important of all, namely

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present population of the United States (thirty millions) would in 7 years cover the whole terraqueous globe so thickly that four men would have to stand on each square yard of surface. The primary or fundamental check to the continued increase of man is the difficulty of gaining subsistence and of living in comfort. We may infer that this is the case from what we see for instance in the United States where subsistence is easy and there is plenty of room. If such means were suddenly doubled in Great Britain our number would be quickly doubled. With civilised nations this primary check acts chiefly by restraining marriages. The greater death rate of infants in the poorest classes is also very important as well as the greater mortality from various diseases of the inhabitants of crowded and miserable houses at all ages. The effects of severe epidemics and wars are soon counterbalanced and more than counterbalanced in nations placed under favourable conditions. Emigration also comes in aid as a temporary check but with the extremely poor classes not to any great extent.

There is great reason to suspect as Malthus has remarked that the reproductive power is actually less in barbarous than in civilised races. We know nothing positively on this head for with savages no census has been taken but from the concurrence of

come as with our domestic animals, an inherited character it is at least known that with mankind a tendency to produce twins runs in families⁶⁰.

Notwithstanding that savages appear to be less prolific than civilised people they would no doubt rapidly increase if their number were not by some means rigidly kept down. The Semiah or hill tribes of India, have recently afforded a good illustration of this fact for as shewn by Mr Hunter⁶¹ they have increased at an extraordinary rate since vaccination has been introduced other pestilences mitigated and war sternly repressed. This increase however would not have been possible had not these rude people pressed into the adjoining districts and worked for hire. Savages almost always marry yet there is some prudential restraint for they do not commonly marry at the earliest possible age. The young men are often required to shew that they can support a wife and they generally have first to earn the price with which to purchase her from her parents. With savages the difficulty of obtaining subsistence occasionally limits their number in a much more direct manner than with civilised people for all tribes periodically suffer from severe famines. At such times savage are forced to devour much bad food and their health can hardly fail to be injured. Many accounts have been published of their protruding stomachs and emaciated limbs after an alluring famine. They are then also compelled to wander much and as I was assured in Australia, their infants perish in large numbers. As famines are periodical depending chiefly on extreme seasons all tribes must fluctuate in number. They cannot tealily and regularly increase as there is no artificial increase in the supply of food. Savage when hard pressed encroach on each other's territory and war is the result but they are in local almost always at war with their neighbours. They are liable to many accidents on land and water in their search for food and in some countries they suffer much from the larger beasts of prey. Even in India, districts have been depopulated by the ravages of tigers.

Malthus has discussed the several checks but he does not lay stress enough on what is probably the most important of all namely

Mr Seligman B. & Co. F. C. M. Co. Cl. g. of L. C. W. July 1863 p. 10.
⁶¹ Hunter's Essay on the History of the People of India, W. H. & Co. 1868 p. 209.

may be partly accounted for as it is believed by the women suckling their infants during a long time but it is highly probable that savages who often suffer much hardship and who do not obtain so much nutritious food as civilised men would be actually less prolific. I have shewn in a former work⁶² that all our domesticated quadrupeds and birds and all our cultivated plants are more fertile than the corresponding species in a state of nature. It is no valid objection to this conclusion that animals suddenly supplied with an excess of food or often grown very fat and that most plants on sudden removal from very poor to very rich soil are rendered more or less sterile. We might, therefore expect that civilised men who in one sense are highly domesticated would be more prolific than wild men. It is also probable that the increased fertility of civilised nations would be

⁶² Natural History of Man, vol. 1, p. 113, 113.

ocal organs, which in the apes are used for uttering various signal-cries, or as in the case of the genus, musical cadence. In the human the closely similar vocal organs have become adapted through the inherited effects of use for the utterance of articulate language.

Turning now to the hands are the talons of man, and the reflex of the best representative of our arthropod ancestors, we find that the hands of the Quadrumana are constructed in the same general pattern as our own, but are far less perfectly adapted for diversified uses. Their hand does not serve for locomotion so well as the feet of the dog as may be seen in the chimpanzee and orang, which walk on the margins of the palms, on the knuckles.* Their hands, however, are admirably adapted for climbing trees. Many of the thinnest branches, ropes, with the thumb and the fingers and palm in the same manner as we do. They can also lift rather large objects, such as the neck of a bottle to the mouth. Baboons turn the toes, and scratch the roots with their hands. They seize insects, catch small objects with the thumb in opposition to the fingers, and do both the traction and the gripping from the toes of the limbs. A man can make better use of the wild ranges of the branches until the mind cracks and the tears flow with the fingers of the two hands. In the old time the break of hard fruits with

the thumb, or their toes partially converted so that the limbs are converted to mere grasping hooks.⁷

As soon as some ancient member of the great series of the primates came to be less arboreal wing to change in its manner of procuring subsistence to some clinging to the surrounding conditions, to the half-man and the ape, it would have been modified and the latter would have been rendered more truly quadrupedal or bipedal. Baboons frequently climb and rocky districts, and they have necessarily climbed high trees⁸ and they have acquired almost the gait of the dog. Man alone has become a biped and I can, I think, partially see how he has come to assume his erect attitude which I raise in this most conspicuous manner. Man could have attained his

instrument, and by its correspondence with the intellect gives him universal dominion. But the hand and arm could hardly have become perfect, and to have been manufactured weapons, or to have hurled stones and spears with the true aim, as the gastropods were habitually used for locomotion and for supporting the weight of the body, as before remarked, so the gas that were specially fitted for climbing trees. Such a gait is not new, but also has been tested in the sense of the hand and the large limbs. From these causes also the limbs have been an advantage to man to become a biped but for many actions it is indispensable that the arms and whole upper part of the body should be free and the muscular hand and firm in the feet. To gain this great advantage the feet have been rendered flat and the great toe has been peculiarly modified though the hand is tailed the almost complete loss of its power of prehension. It accords with the principle of the division of physical and general labor previously

parast. The roll down the side, or throw in the mud, with the thumb, the finger are in the same manner, and as the hand itself is not able to throw a stone in the present.

It seems to me far from true that because objects are grasped clumsily by the hands, man has less peculiar organs of prehension. We have served them equally well with the present hand. On the contrary, if we do not reason that but that man is perfectly constructed hand would be an advantage to the man provided that the hand were thus rendered less fitted for climbing trees. We may suspect that the hand as perfect as that of man could have been dissimilarly antagonistic to climbing the most arboreal animals. In the world, namely, in America, Colombia in Africa, and Hylotele Asia, are the

arboreal and traorcharily (Brehm, *Illustrierte Tierleben*, B. 1, s. 50). But whether better climber than the peccary of the Iberian era, I do not know. It deserves notice that the feet of the sloths, the most arboreal animals in the world, are wonderful.

⁷Brehm, *Illustrierte Tierleben*, B. 1, s. 80.
⁸The Hand, &c. *Bridgwater Treatise* 1833, p. 35.

*On the Anatomy of the Hand, &c. p. 71.
The Quarterly Review April, 1869, p. 32.

the one half which included all the individuals best adapted by their powers of movement for gaining subsistence or for defending themselves would on an average survive in greater numbers, and procreate more offspring than the other and less well endowed half.

Man in the rudest state in which he now exists is the most dominant animal that has ever appeared on this earth. He has pread more widely than any other highly organised form, and all others have yielded before him. He manifestly owes this immense superiority to his intellectual faculties, to his social habits which lead him to aid and defend his fellows, and to his corporeal structure. The supreme importance of these characters has been proved by the final arbitrament of the battle for life. Through his powers of intellect, articulate language has been evolved, and on this his wonderful advancement has mainly depended. As Mr. Chauncey Wright remarks,

A psychological analysis of the faculty of language shews that even the smallest proficiency in it might require more brain power than the greatest proficiency in any other direction. He has invented and is able to use various weapons, tools, traps, &c. with which he defends himself, kills, or catches prey, and otherwise obtains food. He has made rafts or canoes for fishing or crossing over to neighbouring fertile islands. He has discovered the art of making fire, by which hard and stringy roots can be rendered digestible, and poisonous roots or herbs innocuous. This discovery of fire probably the greatest ever made by man, excepting language, dates from before the dawn of history. These several inventions, by which man in the rudest state has become so pre-eminent, are the direct results of the development of his powers of observation, memory, curiosity, imagination, and reason. I cannot therefore understand how it is that Mr. Wallace* maintains that natural selec-

tion could only have endowed the savage with a brain a little superior to that of an ape.

Although the intellectual powers and social habits of man are of paramount importance to him, we must not underrate the importance of his bodily structure, to which subject the remainder of this chapter will be devoted. The development of the intellectual and social or moral faculties being discussed in a later chapter.

Even to hammer with precision is no easy matter.

carpenter

as true as the sun

self, or in killing birds, requires the most consummate perfection in the correlated action of the muscles of the hand, arm, and shoulder, and further, a fine sense of touch. In throwing a stone or spear, and in many other actions, a man must stand firmly on his feet, and thus again demands the perfect co-adaptation of numerous muscles. To chip a flint into the rudest tool, or to form a barbed spear or hook from a bone, demands the use of a perfect hand, for as a most capable judge, Mr. Schoolcraft** remarks, the shaping fragments of stone into knives, lances, or arrow heads, shews extraordinary ability and long practice. This is to a great extent proved by the fact that primeval men practised a division of labour; each man did not manufacture his own flint tools or rude pottery, but certain individuals appear to have devoted themselves to such work, no doubt receiving in exchange the produce of the chase. Archaeologists are convinced that an enormous interval of time elapsed before our ancestors thought of grinding chipped flints into smooth tools. One can hardly doubt, that a man like animal, who possessed a hand and arm sufficiently perfect to throw a stone with precision, or to form a flint into a rude tool, could, with sufficient practice as far as mechanical skill alone is concerned, make almost anything which a civilised man can make. The structure of the hand in this respect may be compared with that of the

* *Lectures on Natural Selection*. North American

published. The Essay on Man has been a very criticised by Prof. Clifford, one of the most distinguished biologists in Europe. In an article published in the *Bioethicist* of 1870, Mr. J. E. 1870. The remark quoted in my text will surprise very few who have read Mr. Wallace's celebrated paper on 'The Origin of Human Race' Deduced from the Theory of Natural Selection, originally published in the *Philosophical Review*, May 1864, p. 114.

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D 3

throughout the animal kingdom that as the hands became perfected for prehension the feet should have become perfected for support and locomotion. With some savages however the foot has not altogether lost its prehensile power as shewn by their manner of climbing trees and of using them in other ways.²⁴

If it be an advantage to man to stand firmly on his feet and to have his hands and arms free of which from his pre eminent success in the battle of life there can be no doubt then I can see no reason why it should not have been advantageous to the progenitors of man to have become more and more erect or bipedal. They would thus have been better able to defend themselves with stones or clubs to attack their prey or otherwise to obtain food. The best built individuals would in the long run have succeeded best and have survived in larger numbers. If the gorilla and a few allied forms had become extinct it might have been argued with great force and apparent truth that an animal could not have been gradually converted from a quadruped into a biped as all the individuals in an intermediate condition would have been miserably ill fitted for progression. But we know (and this is well worthy of reflection) that the anthropomorphous apes are now actually in an intermediate condition and no one doubts that they are on the whole well adapted for their conditions of life. Thus the gorilla runs with a sidelong shambling gait but more commonly progresses by resting on its bent hands. The long armed apes occasionally use their arms like crutches swinging their bodies forward between them and some kinds of *Hylobates*, without having been taught can walk or run upright with tolerable quickness yet they move awkwardly and much less securely than man. We see in short in existing monkeys a manner of progression intermediate between that of a quadruped and a biped but, as an unprejudiced judge insists the anthropomorphous apes approach in struc-

ture more nearly to the bipedal than to the quadrupedal type.

As the progenitors of man became more and more erect with their hands and arms more and more modified for prehension and other purposes with their feet and legs at the same time transformed for firm support and progression unless other changes of structure would have become necessary. The pelvis would have to be broadened the pine pecu-

in man. Various other structures which appear connected with man's erect position might here have been added. It is very difficult to decide how far these correlated modifications are the result of natural selection and how far of the inherited effects of the increased use of certain parts or of the action of one part on another. No doubt these means of change often co-operate thus when certain muscles and the crests of bone to which they are attached become enlarged by habitual use this shews that certain actions are habitually performed and must be serviceable. Hence the individuals which performed them better would tend to survive in greater numbers.

The free use of the arms and hands partly the cause and partly the result of man's erect position appears to have led in an indirect manner to other modifications of structure. The early male forefathers of man were as previously stated probably furnished with great canine teeth but as they gradually acquired the habit of using stones clubs or other weapons for fighting with their enemies or rival they would use their jaws and teeth less and less. In this case the jaws together with the teeth would become rudimentary as they were not used so much from unimpaired and ana-

mal condition of the teeth in male ruminants apparently in relation with the development of their horns and in horses in relation to their habit of fighting with their incisor teeth and hoofs.

Of the teeth in the skull of the human
1874 On

²⁴ H. Kel has an excellent discussion on the topic by which man became bipedal. *Natural History Magazine*, 1874, 07 Dec. 1881. (Cf. p. 1874.)

In the adult male anthropomorphic pos-
sibilities, and the same has existed it is
the effect of the skillful great develop-
ment of the jaw muscle that cause it to differ
so greatly in many respects from that of man,
and has given to these animals truly right
ful physiognomy. The first as the jaws and
teeth in man progress gradually become
reduced in size the adult skull will be
come to resemble man and in the future exist-
ence. As we shall hereafter see a great

As the human mental faculty gradually
developed itself the brain alone almost
certainly becomes larger. The development
of the brain is a process which the
zebra man bears to his body com-
pared to the same proportion the giraffe
and the camel are related with his high
mental power. We meet the closely anal-
ogous divisions of the brain and the cere-

bral cortex, the cerebral cortex of the hand, and
proposes that the intellect of the yaks and

will be made of the same matter thus the
development of the instincts, mental powers,
and affects of ants are not in us, yet the
cerebral ganglia are not so large as the quarter
of the human head. And this proportion of
the brain of an ant is to the human brain
as the volume of matter in the head of an
ant is to that of a human.

The belief that there exists in man some
close relation between the size of the brain and
the development of the intellectual faculties is
supported by the comparison of the skulls of
the same and of the lower races of animals and

Europeans is 92.3 cubic inches in Americans
87.5 in the Chinese 87.1 and in Austrians 87.1
81.9 cubic inches. Professor Broca's formula for the
the nineteenth century will be more general in
Paris is larger than the size of the skull in 1884 to
1420 and that the increased size, as ascer-
tained by measurement was exclusively in the
the frontal part of the skull—the seat of the
intellectual faculties. Richard is persuaded
that the presence of the frontal lobe in Britain is
much more capacacious than the
ancient skulls. Nevertheless, it must be
admitted that some of the very high an-
thropology has the famous case of Neander-
thal, a wild, stupid and capacious. With
respect to the human animals, M. E. Dart
by comparing the crania of the early and recent

are in complete agreement. On the other hand I believe that the
brains of the modern races are considerably
enlarged, but in comparison with the size of
the modern brain the increase may be attrib-
uted to the brain having been closely confined

The gradually increasing weight of the
brain and skull in man must have increased
the development of the support of the
column, especially when he was living
in the erect position. The change of position was
brotherly about the internal process of the
brain will be isolated and the development of the
skull of many facts have been easily the skull

Die Grenzen der Tierwelt, eine Betrachtung zu
Dresden, Leipzig 1868.
D. Ardin, A note de Science Nat 3rd series,
Zoolog. 1860 p. 203. See also M. Lowe,
Anatomy and Physiology of the Muscles, 1860 p.
14. My notes, M. P. D. review, dissected the
cervical region of the Formica rufa.
Philosophical Transactions 1869 p. 513.

Dr. L. Oca thus explains the otherwise unexplained
fact, that the mean capacity of the skull of the
ancestral troglodytes of Lorraine is greater than that of
modern F. schweinh. The Journal of Science & June 1 1868
The Journal of Science & June 1 1868
medication L. 1, pp 124-129

became naked through the action of the sun. Mr. Belt believes² that within the tropics it is an advantage to man to be destitute of hair as he is thus enabled to free himself of the multitude of ticks (acari) and other parasites, with which he is often infested, and which sometimes cause ulceration. But whether this evil is of sufficient magnitude to have led to the denudation of his body through natural selection, may be doubted, since none of the many quadrupeds inhabiting the tropics have, as far as I know, acquired any specialised means of relief. The view which seems to me the most probable is that man, or rather primarily woman, became divested of hair for ornamental purposes, as we shall see under "sexual selection" and, according to this belief it is not surprising that man should differ so greatly in hairiness from all other primates, for characters, gained through sexual selection, often differ to an extraordinary degree in closely related forms.

According to popular impression, the absence of tail is minutely distinctive of man but as those species which come nearest to him are destitute of this organ, its disappearance does not relate exclusively to man. The tail often differs remarkably in length within the same genus thus in some species of *Macacus* it is longer than the whole body and is formed of twenty-four vertebrae in others it consists of a scarcely visible stump, containing only three or four vertebrae. In some kinds of baboons there are twenty-five whilst in the mandrill there are ten. Every small stunted caudal vertebra or according to Cuvier³ some times only five. The tail, whether it be long or short, almost always tapers towards the end and thus, I presume results from the atrophy of the terminal muscles, together with their arteries and nerves, through disuse leading to the atrophy of the terminal bones. But no explanation can at present be given of the great variety which often occurs in its length. Here however we are more peculiarly concerned with the complete external disappearance of the tail. Professor Broca has recently

shown⁴ that the tail in all quadrupeds consists of two portions, generally separated abruptly from each other the basal portion consists of vertebrae, more or less perfectly channelled and furnished with processes like ordinary vertebrae whereas those of the terminal portion are not channelled, are almost smooth, and scarcely resemble true vertebrae. A tail, though not externally visible, is really present in man and the anthropomorphous apes, and is constructed on exactly the same pattern as both. In the terminal portion the vertebrae constituting the coccyg are quite rudimentary being much reduced in size and number. In the basal portion, the vertebrae are likewise few are united firmly to the sacrum and are arrested in development but they have been rendered much broader and flatter than the corresponding vertebrae in the tails of other animals they constitute what Broca calls the accessory sacral vertebrae. These are of functional importance by supporting certain internal parts and in other ways and their modification is directly connected with the erect or semi-erect attitude of man and the anthropomorphous apes. This conclusion is the more trustworthy as Broca formerly held a different view which he has now abandoned. The modification, therefore, of the basal caudal vertebrae in man and the higher apes may have been effected, directly or indirectly through natural selection.

But what are we to say about the rudimentary and variable vertebrae of the terminal portion of the tail, forming the coccyg? A notion which has often been, and will no doubt again be advanced, namely that friction has had something to do with the disappearance of the external portion of the tail, is not so ridiculous as it at first appears. Dr. Anderson⁵ states that the extremely short tail of *Macacus brunneus* is formed of seven vertebrae including the unbounded basal ones. The extremity is tendinous and contains no vertebrae this is succeeded by five rudimentary ones, so minute that together they are only one line and a half in length, and these are permanently bent to one side in the shape of a hook. The free part of the tail, only a little above an inch in length, includes only four more small vertebrae. This short tail is carried erect but about a quarter of its total length is doubled on itself to the left and thus terminal part, which includes the

²Revue d'Anthropologie 15 2 La Constitution des vertèbres caudales.

³Proceedings of Zoological Society 1872, p. 210.

The Veterinarian, Victoria, 1874, p. 203. As some confirmation of Mr. Belt's view I may quote the following passage from Sir W. Dawson's (Director of the Royal L. vol. 2, p. 440). It is said to be "practiced with the Australians, when the vermin get troublesome to annoy themselves."

Mr. A. George Murray, Proc. Zool. Soc. 1865, pp. 46, 553. Dr. J. E. Gray, Cat. Brit. Mus. Skeletons, Owen, Summary of Evidence, vol. 2, p. 51. Baboon (Gardner) Hist. Nat. Gen., tom. 2, p. 244.

is thus effected Ethnologists believe that it is modified by the kind of cradle in which infants sleep Habitual spasms of the muscles and a cicatrix from a severe burn have permanently modified the facial bones In young persons whose heads have become fixed either side ways or backwards owing to disease one of the two eyes has changed its position and the shape of the skull has been altered apparently by the pressure of the brain in a new direction ⁸⁴ I have shewn that with long eared rabbits even so trifling a cause as the lopping for ward of one ear drags forward almost every bone of the skull on that side so that the bones on the opposite side no longer strictly correspond Lastly if any animal were to increase or diminish much in general size with out any change in its mental powers or if the mental powers were to be much increased or diminished without any great change in the size of the body the shape of the skull would almost certainly be altered I infer this from my observations on domestic rabbits some kinds of which have become very much larger than the wild animal whilst others have retained nearly the same size but in both cases the brain has been much reduced relatively to the size of the body Now I was at first much surprised on finding that in all these rabbits the skull had become elongated or dolichocephalic for instance of two skulls of nearly equal breadth the one from a wild rabbit and the other from a large domestic kind the former was 3.15 and the latter 4.3 inches in length ⁸⁵ One of the most marked distinctions in different races of men is that the skull in some is elongated and in others rounded and here the explanation suggested by the case of the rabbits may hold good for Welcker finds that short men incline more to brachycephaly and tall men to dolichocephaly ⁸⁶ and tall men may be compared with the larger and longer bodied rabbit.

all of which have elongated skulls, or are dolichocephalic.

From these several facts we can understand to a certain extent, the means by which the great size and more or less rounded form of the skull have been acquired by man and these are characters eminently distinctive of him in comparison with the lower animals.

Another most conspicuous difference between man and the lower animals is the nakedness of his skin Whales and porpoises (Cetacea) dugongs (Sirenia) and the hippopotamus are naked and this may be advantageous to them for gliding through the water nor would it be injurious to them from the loss of warmth as the species which inhabit the colder regions, are protected by a thick layer of blubber serving the same purpose as the fur of seals and otters Elephants and rhinoceroses are almost hairless and as certain extinct species, which formerly lived under an arctic climate were covered with long wool or hair it would almost appear as if the existing species of both genera had lost their hairy covering from exposure to heat. This appears the more probable as the elephants in India which live on elevated and cool districts are more hairy ⁸⁷ than those on the lowlands May we then infer that man became divested of hair from having aboriginally inhabited some tropical land? That the hair is chiefly retained in the male sex on the chest and face and in both sexes at the junction of all four limbs with the trunk favours this inference—on the assumption that the hair was lost before man became erect for the parts which now retain most hair would then have been most protected from the heat of the sun The crown of the head however offers a curious exception for at all times it must have been one of the most exposed parts, yet it is thickly clothed with hair The fact, however that the other members of the order of primates to which man belongs, although inhabiting various hot regions are well clothed with hair generally thickest on the upper surface ⁸⁸ is opposed to the supposition that man

⁸⁴ On Anatomy of the Vertebrate vol. iii p. 619

⁸⁵ See de Geoffroy St. Hilaire remarks (Illustr. de l'Anat. Comp. t. iii p. 215-217) the

in f. t. m. 1854 p. 28) h. er at test t. th g. rilla th hair is th er th b. ch. wh re t is partly rubbed off th n th l er surface.

merely considered sufficiently the existence of structures, which, as far as we can tell, prevent judgements as to whether they are either beneficial or injurious, and thus I believe to be one of the greatest faults as yet detected in my work. I may be permitted to say as some excuse that I had two distinct objects in view first to show that species had not been separated by creation, and secondly that natural selection had been the chief agent of change though largely aided by the inherited effects of habit, and slightly by the direct action of the surrounding conditions. I was not, however, able to annul the influence of my former belief that in almost universal, that each species had been purposely created and thus led to my tacit assumption that very detail of structure except in rudiments, was of some special, though unrecog- nized, service. In line with this assumption in his mind would naturally extend too far the action of natural selection, either during past or present times. Some of those who admit the principle of evolution, but reject natural selection, seem to forget, with criticism in book, that I had the above two objects in view hence I have insisted upon natural selection of great power which I am very far from admitting, or in having exaggerated its power which is in itself probable. I have, I think, as I hope does good service in admitting to overthrow the dogmas of separate creations.

It is, as I can now see, probable that all organic beings, including man, possess peculiarities of structure, which either are now no longer functional or of an service to them, and which, therefore, are of no physiological importance. We know not what produces the unnecessary light differences between the individuals of each species, for we rarely carry the problem of variation backwards, but each peculiarity must have had its cause. If these causes, whatever they may be, were to act more uniformly and eternally during lengthened period and against this no reason can be assigned, the result would probably be not mere slight individual difference, but well-marked and constant modification, though we are of no physiological importance. Changed structures, which are in no way beneficial, cannot be kept uniform through natural selection, though the injurious will be eliminated. Uniformity of character

and lower natural follow from the assumed uniformity of the existing causes, and liberate from the free intercrossing of man individuals. During successive periods, the

same organism might in this manner acquire successive modifications, which would be transmitted in a nearly uniform state as long as the existing causes remained the same and there was free intercrossing. With respect to the existing causes we can only say as when we speak of so-called spontaneous variations, that they relate much more closely to the constitution of the varying organism, than to the nature of the conditions to which it has been subjected.

Conclusion.—In this chapter we have seen that as man at the present day is liable like every other animal, to multiform individual differences or slight variations, so no doubt were the ancestral progenitors of man the variations being formed and caused by the same general causes, and governed by the same general and complex laws as at present. As all animals tend to multiply beyond their means of subsistence, so it must have been with the progenitors of man and this would inevitably lead to a struggle for existence and to natural selection. The latter process would be greatly aided by the inherited effects of the increased use of parts, and these two processes would incessantly react on each other. It appears, also, as we shall hereafter see that various unimportant characters have been acquired by man through sexual selection. An unexplained reason of change must be left to the assumed uniform action of those unknown agencies, which occasionally and destructively marked and abrupt deviations of structure in our domestic productions.

Judging from the habits of savages and of the great number of the Quadrumana, primates in nature and in their peculiar propensities, probably lived in society. With strictly social animals, natural selection sometimes acts on the individual, through the preservation of attributes which are beneficial to the community. A community which includes a large number of well-endowed individuals increases in number and is victorious over other less favored ones. In although each separate individual gains no advantage, yet the others of the same community. Associated insects have thus acquired many remarkable structures, which are of little or no service to the individual, such as the pollen-collecting apparatus, or the structure of the wing in the case of the "great" wasps of social wasps. With the high social animals, I am not aware that any structure has been modified solely for the good of

hook like portion serves to fill up the interspace between the upper divergent portion of the callosities so that the animal sits on it and thus renders it rough and callous Dr Anderson thus sums up his observations

These facts seem to me to have only one explanation this tail from its short size is in the monkey's way when it sits down and frequently becomes placed under the animal while it is in this attitude and from the circumstance that it does not extend beyond the extremity of the anal tuberosity it seems as if the tail originally had been bent round by the will of the animal into the interspace between the callosities to escape being pressed between them and the ground and that in time the curvature became permanent fitting in of itself when the organ happens to be sat upon Under these circumstances it is not surprising that the surface of the tail should have been roughened and rendered callous and Dr Murie²³ who carefully observed this species in the Zoological Gardens as well as three other closely allied forms with slightly longer tails says that when the animal sits down the tail is necessarily thrust to one side of the buttocks and whether long or short its root is consequently liable to be rubbed or chafed As we now have evidence that mutilations occasionally produce an inherited effect it is not very improbable that in short tailed monkeys the projecting part of the tail being functionally useless should after many generations have become rudimentary and distorted from being continually rubbed and chafed We see the projecting part in this condition in the *Macacus brunneus* and absolutely aborted in the *M. leucodatus* and in several of the higher apes Finally then as far as we can judge the tail has disappeared in man and the anthropomorphous apes owing to the terminal

as to become suitable to the erect or semi erect position

I have now endeavoured to shew that some of the most distinctive characters of man have in all probability been acquired either directly or more commonly indirectly through natural selection We should bear in mind that modifications in structure or constitution which do not serve to adapt an organism to its habits of life to the food which it consumes or passively to the surrounding conditions, can not have been thus acquired We must not however be too confident in deciding what modifications are of service to each being we should remember how little we know about the use of many parts or what changes in the blood or tissues may serve to fit an organism for a new climate or new kinds of food Nor must we forget the principle of correlation by which as Isidore Geoffroy has shewn in the case of man many strange deviations of structure are tied together Independently of correlation a change in one part often leads through the increased or decreased use of other parts to other changes of a quite unexpected nature It is also well to reflect on such facts as the wonderful growth of galls on plants caused by the poison of an insect and on the remarkable changes of colour in the plumage of parrots when fed on certain fishes or inoculated with the poison of toads²⁴ for we can thus see that the fluids of the system if altered for some special purpose might induce other changes We should especially bear in mind that modifications acquired and continually used during past ages for some useful purpose would probably become firmly fixed and might be long inherited

Thus a large yet undefined extension may safely be given to the direct and indirect results of natural selection but I now admit after reading the essay by Nageli on plants and the remarks by various authors with respect to animals more especially the recently made by Professor Broca, that in the earlier editions of my *Origin of Species* I perhaps attributed too much to the action of natural selection or the survival of the fittest I have altered the fifth edition of the *Origin* so as to confine my remarks to adaptive changes of structure but I am convinced from the light gained during even the last few years, that very many structures which now appear to us useless will hereafter be proved to be useful and will therefore come within the range of natural selection Nevertheless, I did not for

entirely the hind feet of the orang-utans and the gibbons. See also the general subject of variation of the limbs in the *Journal of the Royal Society* under Domestication, vol. i. pp. 22-24

²⁴Th. B. r. i. o. i. f. i. m. l. s. d. i. l. l. a. d. e. r. D. o. m. e. s. t. i. c. a. t. o. v. l. u. pp. 250-252

CHAPTER III

COMPARISON OF THE MENTAL POWERS OF MAN AND THE LOWER ANIMALS

WE HAVE seen in the last two chapters that man bears in his bodily structure clear traces of his descent from some low form but it may be said that, as man differs so greatly in his mental power from all the animals, there must be some error in this conclusion. No doubt the difference in this respect is enormous, even if we compare the mind of our fittest savages, who has now rarely expressed any number higher than five and who uses hardly any abstract terms for common objects of the affections, with that of the most highly organised ape. The difference would doubtless, till remain unimpaired if one of the highest had been improved and civilised as much as a dog has been in comparison with its parent form, the wolf or jackal. The Fergians rank amongst the lowest barbarians, but I was continually struck with surprise how closely the three natives on board H. M. S. *Beagle* who had lived some years in England, and could talk little English, resembled us in disposition and in most of our mental faculties. If in

My object in this chapter is to show that there is no fundamental difference between man and the lower mammals in their mental faculties. Each division of the subject might have been extended into a separate essay but must here be treated briefly. As no classification of the mental powers has been universally accepted, I shall arrange my remarks the most convenient for my purpose and will select those facts which have struck me most, with the hope that they may produce some effect on the reader.

With respect to animals, I will win the scale I will add some additional facts under Sexual

also of the same species is an important point for us, and some illustrations will here begin. But it would be tedious to enter into many details in this head, so I have founded on frequent inquiry that it is the unanimous opinion of all those who have attended to animals of many kinds, in the birds, the insects and the animals greatly in every mental characteristic. In what manner the mental powers were first developed in the lowest organisms,

ence of this kind. We must also admit that there is much wide interval in mental power between the lowest fishes, as lamprey or lancelet, and of the highest, as the ape and man, yet this interval is filled up by numberless gradations.

It is the difference slight in mental disposition between barbarian, such as the man described by the old navigator Byron, who dashed his child on the rocks for dropping basaltic sea-urchins, and Howard Clark so and in intellect, between a savage who uses hardly an abstract term, and a wit or Shakespeare. Differences of this kind between the highest of the high races and the lowest savages, are connected by the finest gradations. Therefore it is possible that they might pass and be developed into each other.

We have the evidence on these points, as given by Lubbock, *Philosophy of Man* p. 404, &c.

As man possesses the same sense as the lower animals, his fundamental instincts must be the same. Man has also some few instincts in common, as that of self-preservation, sexual love, the love of the mother, the love of offspring, the desire possessed by the latter to suck, and so forth. But man, perhaps, has somewhat fewer instincts than those possessed by the animals which come next to him in the series. The ran in the Eastern lands, and the chimpanzee in Africa, build platforms on which they sleep and, as both species follow the same habit, it might be argued that this was due to instinct, but we cannot feel sure that it is not the result of both animals having similar wants, and possessing similar powers of reasoning. These powers, as we may assume, varied in many portions of the tropics, and man has no such knowledge but as our domestic animals, who are taken to foreign lands, and

the community though some are of secondary service to it. For instance the horns of ruminants and the great canine teeth of baboons appear to have been acquired by the males as weapons for sexual strife but they are used in defence of the herd or troop. In regard to certain mental powers the case as we shall see in the fifth chapter is wholly different for these faculties have been chiefly or even exclusively gained for the benefit of the community and the individuals thereof have at the same time gained an advantage indirectly.

It has often been objected to such views as the foregoing that man is one of the most helpless and defenceless creatures in the world and that during his early and less well developed condition he would have been still more helpless. The Duke of Argyll for instance insists⁹⁶ that the human frame has diverged from the structure of brutes in the direction of greater physical helplessness and weakness. That is to say it is a divergence which of all others it is most impossible to ascribe to mere natural selection. He adduces the naked and unprotected state of the body the absence of great teeth or claws for defence the small strength and speed of man and his slight power of discovering food or of avoiding danger by smell. To these deficiencies there might be added one still more serious namely that he cannot climb quickly and so escape from enemies. The loss of hair would not have been a great injury to the inhabitants of a warm country for we know that the unclothed Fuegians can exist under a wretched climate. When we compare the defenceless state of man with that of apes we must remember that the great canine teeth with which the latter are provided are possessed in their full develop-

as powerful as the gorilla and therefore we cannot say whether man has become larger and stronger or smaller and weaker than his ancestors. We should however bear in mind that an animal possessing great size strength and ferocity and which like the gorilla, could defend itself from all enemies would not perhaps have become social and thus would most effectually have checked the acquirement of the higher mental qualities such as sympathy and the love of his fellows. Hence it might have been an immense advantage to man to have sprung from some comparatively weak creature.

The small strength and speed of man is want of natural weapons &c are more than counterbalanced firstly by his intellectual powers through which he has formed for himself weapons tools &c though still remaining in a barbarous state and secondly by his social qualities which lead him to give and receive aid from his fellow men. No country in the world abounds in a greater degree with dangerous beasts than southern Africa no country presents more fearful physical hardships than the arctic regions yet one of the puniest of races that of the bushmen maintains itself in southern Africa as do the dwarfed Esquimaux in the arctic regions. The ancestors of man were no doubt inferior in intellect and probably in social disposition to the lowest existing savages but it is quite con-

such as that of climbing trees &c. But these ancestors would not have been exposed to any special danger even if far more helpless and defenceless than any existing savages, had

to survive

In regard to bodily size or strength we do not know whether man is descended from some small species like the chimpanzee or from one

⁹⁶ *Primæval Man*, 1869 p. 60

natural selection arising from the competition of tribe with tribe in some such large area as one of these together with the inherited effects of habit, would under favourable conditions have sufficed to raise man to his present high position in the organic scale.

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Nat ry arch der grither von l y 1830 ss.
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when first turned out in the spring often eat poisonous herbs which they afterwards avoid we cannot feel sure that the apes do not learn from their own experience or from that of their parents what fruits to select It is however certain as we shall presently see that apes have an instinctive dread of serpents and probably of other dangerous animals

The fewness and the comparative simplicity of the instincts in the higher animals are remarkable in contrast with those of the lower animals Cuvier maintained that instinct and intelligence stand in an inverse ratio to each other and some have thought that the intellectual faculties of the higher animals have been gradually developed from their instincts But Louchet in an interesting essay has shewn that no such inverse ratio really exists Those insects which possess the most wonderful instincts are certainly the most intelligent In the vertebrate series the least intelligent members namely fishes and amphibians do not possess complex instincts and amongst mammals the animal most remarkable for its instincts namely the beaver is highly intelligent as will be admitted by every one

Mr Herbert Spencer have been developed through the multiplication and co-ordination of reflex actions and although many of the simpler instincts graduate into reflex actions and can hardly be distinguished from them as in the case of young animals sucking yet the more complex instincts seem to have originated independently of intelligence I am however very far from wishing to deny that instinctive actions may lose their fixed and untaught character and be replaced by others performed by the aid of the free will On the other hand some intelligent actions after being performed during several generations become converted into instincts and are inherited as when birds on oceanic islands learn to avoid man These actions may then be said to be degraded in character for they are no longer performed through reason or from experience But the greater number of the more complex instincts appear to have been gained in a wholly different manner through the natural selection of variations of simpler instinctive actions

† *L'Instinct de l'insecte* R. de Des Deux Mondes Feb 18 0 p 600
The American Bee d. H. B. 1 1868
The Principles of Psychology 2nd ed 18 0 pp 418-443

Such variations appear to arise from the same unknown causes acting on the cerebral organisation which induce slight variations or individual differences in other parts of the body and these variations owing to our ignorance are often said to arise spontaneously We can I think come to no other conclusion with respect to the origin of the more complex instincts when we reflect on the marvellous instincts of sterile worker ants and bees which leave no offspring to inherit the effects of experience and of modified habits

Although as we learn from the above mentioned insects and the beaver a high degree of intelligence is certainly compatible with complex instinct

It is not improbable that there is a certain amount of interference between the development of free intelligence and of instinct,—which latter implies some inherited modification of the brain Little is known about the functions of the brain but we can perceive that as the intellectual powers become highly developed the various parts of the brain must be connected by very intricate channels of the freest intercommunication and as a consequence each sense would

There seems even to exist some relation between a low degree of intelligence and a strong tendency to the formation of fixed though not inherited habits for

If this is encouraged

I have thought this line worth giving because we may easily exaggerate the mental powers of the higher animals, and especially of man when we compare their actions founded on the memory of past events on foreglit, reason and imagination with exactly similar actions instinctively performed by the lower animals in this latter case the capacity of performing such actions has been gained step through the variability of the mental organ and natural selection without any conscious intelligence on the part of the animal during successive generations. No doubt as Mr Wallace has argued much of the intel

† *Instinct in the Theory of Natural Selection* 18 0 p 212

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¹ W C L Martin, *Nat al H story of M mmales*,
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² B man O *Aphas a*, 18 p 110

³ l ted by Vogt, *M f m m le M crocophale*
196 p 168.

⁴ *La Variatio of 4 male ad Pla is nder Do-*
me uion, vol. 1, p. 2.
⁵ *Annales de Seigne Nat.*, (1 t series), tom, xxii.,
p. 327

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certainly had a fine intellect for she was much astonished at being scratched and immediately examined the kitten's feet and without more ado bit off the claws "In the Zoological Gardens I heard from the keeper that an old baboon (*C. chacma*) had adopted a Rhesus monkey but when a young drill and mandrill were placed in the cage she seemed to perceive that the monkeys though distinct species were her nearer relatives for she at once rejected the Rhesus and adopted both of

the young drill and mandrill whenever it could do so with safety this conduct exciting great indignation in the old baboon Monkeys will also according to Brehm defend their master when attacked by any one as well as dogs to whom they are attached from the attacks of other dogs But we here trench on the subjects of sympathy and fidelity to which I shall recur Some of Brehm's monkeys took much delight in teasing a certain old dog whom they disliked as well as other animals in various ingenious ways

Most of the more complex emotions are common to the higher animals and ourselves Every one has seen how jealous a dog is of his master's affection if lavished on any other creature and I have observed the same fact with monkeys This shews that animals not only love but have desire to be loved Animals manifestly feel emulation They love approbation or praise and a dog carrying a basket for his master exhibits in a high degree self complacency or pride There can I think be no doubt that a dog feels shame as distinct from fear and something very like modesty when begging too often for food A great dog scorns the snarling of a little dog and this may be called magnanimity Several observers have stated that monkeys certainly dislike being laughed at and they sometimes invent imaginary offences In the Zoological Gardens I saw a baboon who always got into a furious rage when his keeper took out a letter or book and read it aloud to him and his rage was so violent that as I witnessed on one occasion he bit his own leg till the blood flowed Dogs shew what may be fairly called a sense of humour as

distinct from mere play if a bit of stick or other such object be thrown to one he will often carry it away for a short distance and then squatting down with it on the ground close before him will wait until his master comes quite close to take it away The dog will then seize it and rush away in triumph repeating the same manœuvre and evidently enjoying the practical joke

We will now turn to the more intellectual emotions and faculties which are very important as forming the basis for the development of the higher mental powers Animals manifestly enjoy excitement, and suffer from ennui as may be seen with dogs and according to Rengger with monkeys All animals feel wonder and many exhibit Curiosity They sometimes suffer from this latter quality as when the hunter plays antics and thus attracts them I have witnessed this with deer and so it is with the wary chamois and with some kinds of wild ducks Brehm gives a curious account of the instinctive dread which his monkeys exhibited for snakes but their curiosity was so great that they could not resist from occasionally satiating their horror in a most human fashion by lifting up the lid of the box in which the snakes were kept I was so much surprised at this account that I took a stuffed and coiled up snake into the monkey house at the Zoological Gardens and the excitement thus caused was one of the most curious spectacles which I ever beheld Three species of Cercopithecus were the most alarmed they dashed about their cages and uttered sharp signal cries of danger which were understood by the other monkeys A few young monkeys and one old Anolis baboon alone took no notice of the snake I then placed the stuffed specimen on the ground in one of the larger compartments After a time all the monkeys

when a wooden ball with which they were familiar as a plaything was accidentally moved in the straw under which it was partly hidden they all instantly started away These monkeys behaved very differently when a dead fish a mouse¹² a living turtle and other new objects were placed in their cages for though at first frightened they soon approached handled and examined them I then placed a live

CH. III MENTAL POWERS OF MAN AND THE LOWER ANIMALS

large plate-glass window would dash himself
even once against it, he would find a great time
afterwards associate a knock with the window
frame but he could reflect from the plank he
would probably reflect on the nature of the
impediment, and be careful under analogous
circumstances. A man with much sense, as we shall
presently see, cannot rely on a disagreeable
impression, from an action, as a per-
manent effect.

There is a cultivated man who would perhaps
make some general proposition on the subject
but from all the things he has seen, he
trembles at the thought that they would do so,
and a dog certainly would not. But as a sage
would use religiously the same way

consequently plain
would appear to the elephant and the bear
much different in the result. They say
that certain of the known are by

use of man that similar difference im-
plies the possession of a fundamentally different
mind.

Huxley relates that, whilst crossing wide
and arid plains in Texas, he two dogs sniffed
greatly from thirst, and then between the two
and forty times they rushed down the hills
to search for water. These hills were not
all sand, and there were trees in them
and the difference in the vegetation, and as
the absolute dryness could have been
made of damp earth. The dogs behaved as
if they knew that deep in the ground there
was the best chance of finding it, and
Huxley has witnessed the same be-
haviour in the animals.

I have seen, as I dare say he has, that the
small object thrown into the ground
be directly reached for by the animal. In the
Zoo of the Garden, he blew through his
trunk the ground beneath the object, so that
the current reflected all and may drive the
object within his reach. A man will know
the dog, Mr. W. Trappier, in the
observed in a bear, that the animal
thrust his paw into the soil which
as close to the bar of the cage so as to draw
a piece of board from beneath the bear's reach.
These actions of the elephant and bear can
hardly be attributed to intelligence, but
that, as they could be of little use to an
animal that cannot use what the
difference between his actions, when per-
formed by an educated man, and by
the higher animals.

It is said that the dog has the faculty
of low intelligence, and the conclusion is
that the circumstances has become associated in

Etude sur les Facultés Mentales de l'Animal,
1842, tom. II. p. 263.

in the light of the fact that there would
not be the difference between him and
the higher animals, that he would take
notice of the circumstances and con-
ditions, and would observe any connection be-
tween them and the chance of success.

ness, with the light of all sorts of objects and sounds

exactly the same way the power of assoc-
iation from the sense of the seal, as the
pike, as well as in the case of the gnat and
the bee.

The promptness of reason, after a short
experience, are well shown by the following ac-
tions of the American mink, which I saw
in the river. It gave a most careful ob-
servations to the white first gave to
him mink in the garb they munched them,
and then in the case of the contents of
ward to the light but against some
hard body and poked the bits of shell with
the fingers. After cutting the muscles of
the with any sharp tool they did not
taste, and would handle the things with
care. The mink gave the things to the
wrapped in paper and the things to the
put in the paper so that in a hurry

*Prof. Huxley has analysed with admirable re-
ness the mental powers by which man, as well as
the animals, conclude in case of necessity
that the most likely result is the most probable.
Critica, the Critique of Reason, 1841
p. 462, and in his Critique and Essay 1843 p. 29

to all strangers and I purposely tried his memory after an absence of five years and two days I went near the stable where he lived and shouted to him in my old manner he shewed no joy but instantly followed me out walking and obeyed me exactly as if I had parted with him only half an hour before A train of old associations dormant during five years had thus been instantaneously awakened in his mind Even ants as P. Huber¹⁸ has clearly shewn recognised their fellow ants belonging to the same community after a separation of four months Animals can certainly by some means judge of the intervals of time between recurrent events

The *Imagination* is one of the highest prerogatives of man By this faculty he unites former images and ideas independently of the will and thus creates brilliant and novel results A poet as Jean Paul Richter remarks¹⁹ who must reflect whether he shall make a character say yes or no—to the devil with him he is only a stupid corpse Dreaming gives us the best notion of this power as Jean Paul again says The dream is an involuntary art of poetry The value of the products of our imagination depends of course

on any combination and to a certain extent on our power of voluntarily combining them As dogs cats horse and probably all the higher animals even birds²⁰ have vivid dreams and this is shewn by their movements and the sounds uttered we must admit that they possess some power of imagination There must be something more

as saying All dogs do not do so and according to Houzeau²¹ that is not then
 not near
 imagination
 lines of
 before
 or feel

of the faculties of the human mind it will I presume be admitted that Reason

stands at the summit Only a few persons now dispute that animals possess some power of reasoning Animals may constantly be seen to pause deliberate and resolve It is a significant fact that the more the habits of any particular animal are studied by a naturalist the more he attributes to reason and the less to unlearned instincts²² In future chapters we shall see that some

For instance Dr Hayes, in his work on *The Open Polar Sea* repeatedly remarks that his dogs instead of continuing to draw the sledges in a compact body merged and separated when they came to thin ice so that their weight might be more evenly distributed This was often the first warning which the travellers received that the ice was becoming thin and dangerous Now did they do so act thus from the experience of each individual or from the example of the older and wiser dogs, or from an inherited habit that is from instinct This instinct, may possibly have arisen since the time long ago when dogs were first employed by the natives in drawing their sledge or the arctic wolves, the parent stock of the Esquimaux dog may have acquired an instinct impelling them not to attack their prey in a close pack when on thin ice

We can only judge by the circumstances under which actions are performed whether they are due to instinct or to reason or to the mere association of ideas this latter principle however is intimately connected with reason A curious case has been given by Prof. Moebius²³ of a pike separated by a plate of glass from an adjoining aquarium stocked with fish and who often dashed himself with such violence against the glass in trying to eat the other fishes, that he was sometimes completely stunned The pike went on thus for three months but at last he grew cautious and ceased to do so The plate of glass was then removed but the pike would not attack these particular fishes though he would devour others which were afterwards introduced so strongly was the idea of a violent attack associated in his feeble mind with the attempt on his former neighbours If a savage who had never seen a

large plat glass and w w t to dash himself
e noce against t, b w l d f l ng t m
aft rwards associ t shock n th a widow
fram b t ry duf ntly from th p k he
uld probably reflect n the tire f the
mpedim t, and he t und anal g us
circumstances. \ w with m uk 3s, as w shall
presentl sec, a painf l r m rely a d agree-
abl impression from act n e per-
formed i som tim uff t t p e t th
an mal from epe ti g t. If w ttrib t th
d ff rence between the m k y and tl pk
sol ly to th assoc ti f d as b g so m h
tro g and m re persu t n th than
th th th g th pk ft rece ed much
th m re se re 3 ry can w mai tain n the
ase f man th t a simil d ff re ce mpl
th possess n f f dam tally d ff rent
m d

trem | doubl | wh th r u ,
 and | ' | ld not. But a sa age,
 as w
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 seem
 or no
 conse.
 w ld appl t the l plant and t
 mahi g cu nts n th a r water The sa
 ag w uld certa l n th r h n are by
 wh tl w th de ed m nts were flected
 y this act w uld b gu ded by a rad process
 f reason: as s rely wo ld a phil sopher
 m h s i ng tch a fided ct s Tl rew uld
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If ze relates th t, whilst cross g w de
nd and plain n T as, l two d g ff red
gre l from thirst, and th t b tween th ty
and f rty times th y rushed d w th h flows
t search f w t Th e b l w a re t
d th re re n tree n th m r

tween them after a less extensive
than in the importance of the
and
facts.

It is the best chance of finding out and
has it within seed the same be-
havior in the animals.

I have seen, as I do say, that the
small object through the ground
will reach the first place that

observed t u n b d i b t i m b
th l p w r r t s o w t w h c h
a s l o t t h b f l n c a g s o a s t d r a w
t h e f l o a t g b d t h h r e a c h
T h e a c t f t l i p h a t a n d b e a r c a n
h a l l b e t r i t e d t t t n i t e d
h a t l a s t h y k i d b e f i t t l s e t a n
a s a l t a t f n a t r e N h a t t h
d i f f e r e n c e b e t w e i a c t i n s h p e r
f u n e d i c u l t u t e d m a n , a n d b y

old a
was
ness, w th wlu h all so ts
w re assoc ted t g t l r in l s m d comp
pare w th l t t f t l e m t n t l l h t d g l
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actly t l s a m w s n t h p o w o f a s s o c
t u n f r o m t h l w n t h s c a l h a s t h
p k a s w l a s t h t f d w n g i n f e r e n c e
a n d f b s c t n

The prompt is also iterative to
 cover as well known by the following

and the letter mentions after

eat Lamp f garn ft ngt ath m
w pped up in p pe and ll gg som t m
p t h na p ath p pe so that n hastily

unfolding it they got stung after this had once happened they always first held the packet to their ears to detect any movement within²⁸

The following cases relate to dogs Mr Colquhoun²⁷ winged two wild-ducks which fell on the further side of a stream his retriever tried to bring over both at once but could not succeed she then though never before known to ruffle a feather deliberately killed one brought over the other and returned for the dead bird Col Hutchinson relates that two partridges were shot at once one being killed the other wounded the latter ran away and was caught by the retriever who on her return came across the dead bird she stopped evidently greatly puzzled and after one or two trials finding she could not take it up without permitting the escape of the winged bird she considered a moment then deliberately murdered it by giving it a severe crunch and afterwards brought away both together This was the only known instance of her ever having willfully injured any game Here we have reason though not quite perfect for the retriever might have brought the wounded bird first and then returned for the dead one as in the case of the two wild ducks I give the above cases as resting on the evidence of two independent witnesses and because in both instances the retrievers after deliberation broke through a habit which is inherited by them (that of not killing the game retrieved) and because they shew how strong their reasoning faculty must have been to overcome a fixed habit

I will conclude by quoting a remark by the illustrious Humboldt.²⁹ The muleteers in S America say I will not give you the mule whose step is easiest but *la mas racional* —the one that reasons best and as he adds this popular expression dictated by long experience combats the system of animated machines better perhaps than all the arguments of speculative philosophy Nevertheless some writers even yet deny that the higher animals possess a trace of reason and they endeavor to explain away by what appears to be mere

verbiage³⁰ all such facts as those above given

It has I think now been shewn that man and the higher animals especially the primate have some few instincts in common All have the same senses, intuitions, and sensations —similar passions affections and emotions, even the more complex ones, such as jealousy suspicion emulation gratitude, and magnanimity they practise deceit and are revengeful they are sometimes susceptible to ridicule and even have a sense of humour they feel wonder and curiosity they possess the same faculties of imitation attention deliberation choice memory imagination the association of ideas and reason though in very different degrees The individuals of the same species graduate in intellect from absolute imbecility to high excellence They are also liable to insanity though far less often than in the case of man³⁰ Nevertheless, many authors have insisted that man is divided by an insuperable barrier from all the lower animals in his mental faculties I formerly made a collection of above a score of such aphorisms, but they are almost worthless, as their wide difference and number prove the difficulty if not the impossibility of the attempt. It has been asserted that man alone is capable of progressive improvement that he alone makes use of tools or fire domesticates other animals, possesses property that no animal has the power of abstraction or of forming general concepts, is self-conscious and comprehends itself that no animal employs language that man alone has a sense of beauty is liable to caprice has the feelings of gratitude mystery &c believes in God or is endowed with a conscience I will hazard a few remarks on the more important and interesting of these points

Archbishop Sumner formerly maintained³¹ that man alone is capable of progressive improvement. That he is capable of incomparably

clearly shew that this animal possessed some reason

²⁷The Moor and the Loch, p. 45 C. I. Hutchinson on Dog Barking, 1850 p. 46

²⁸Per o al v rrat r E g tr nslat v l m p

esse f reas ng
²⁹See Mad ss n A als, by Dr W La l r
L dsay in J rnal f Mental Science July 18 1
Q ted by S r C I j l Ant q ty f M n, p. 497

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grete and m re rap d impro m t than
any oth r animal admits of no di p t and
thus mainly d to h power f speaking and
handing d wn lu acquired kn wled With
animals, looking first t the i di d al, ery
e who has had any xperi nce n settin
traps, kn w that v ung animals can be
ca ght m ch mo asly than ld nes and
th y can be m ch m re easily pproached by
an en my E n with respect to ld animals, t
is mpossible to catch many in th sam place
and in th sam kind f t p or t destroy
th m by th sam ki l f poison y t t m
probabl that all sh ld h partak n f the
poison, and impossibl tl t all sh uld ha e
bee ca ght in trap Th y must learn ca ti n
by seeing th brethrn ht poisoned In
N rth Am rica, wh re th fur b an g animals
ha n r e d th y lib t, accord

as o the mainm t
who de c bes these tw latter case ttnbutes
t o r the large

th hab tual reise of all is m
a di g xtrpati n by man as w ll as to
n arly all th less unning w ak m ded
ats ha ng been conti usly de troy d by
hum. It is h we r pos. bl th t th success f
the commo rat may be d e to ts h ving pos-
sessed greate unning, than its fellow peci s,
bef re it becam associ ted with man. To
maintain ind pe dentl of any direct e r
de ce th t no animal d n th course of
ages has progressed i tellect o oth r m tal
faculties, to be th q t n f the e l
t n of species. W h e seen that, according
to Lart t, xisting mammals bel nging to sev-
eral rd rs ha e larg r b ains than th r an

ca
th re sol g carried n, m
possibly h com t ply I h ece ed
se ral accounts th t wh n tel gr phs are first
set p any district, many b rd kill them
sel es by flyin against th wires, b t th t in
th course f a ry few years they l arn to
d th dang by seeing, as i w ld p-
pear thn com ad killed²²

If w look to cecssu ge rations, to
the race th re is d lt th t b rd and th
animals g adually both acq re nd l se cau
tio relati to man tl mnes²³ and
th t is ce tainly in ch f part an in
h rited hab t instinet b t part th re ult
of nd id al xperi nce A good observ Le-
roy²⁴ tates, that d tris h re f es are
m h h ted th g, first l g th e r
t h n, are inco t ably m ch mo wary
than th ld n distri ts wh re th y are
not m h dist bed

Our d mest d gs ar d scended f m
l es and jacksals,²⁵ and th gh th y m y t
ha gai ed cunni g, and m y l lo t in
wari es and usp n, y t th y h pro-
gressed in certai m al q lites, ch as

F additonal id ce th d t la, see M.
Houseau, *Etudes su l Facultés Mentales de Ani-*
m sz an 182, p 147

²²See h re pect t birds oceanic lands, m
J nal f Hæmarche d ghtl y g of th Be gle
1843 p 393 Origin f peci s, th ed., p 193.

²³See the i ore ths head chap. i., ol. i.,
O th Variation of t mals and Plants under Do-

medica on.

waln t, with t e.
an American m nk y th t b ak pen hand
palm ts and aft rwards f ts own coord
ed t t open the kind of nuts,

I —
into a re ce, slip his hand to th oth nd
and use t in th proper man er as a l The
tamed el phants In ha are w ll kn wn to
break ff b anches f tree and use th m to
dn w y th fl and thissam act has been
obser ed in an l phant in tat f n tu²⁶
I ha see y ung ang, wh n sh t ght
shewas g bt be wh pped co and protect
herself with blank t str w In these se
ral case t n and t cks w re mpl yed as
implments but th y are lik wise used as
w pons. Brehm²⁷ tates, n the thorty of
Proceed g Zool gical Society 1864 p 186.
Sa g and Wyma Bosto Jow nal f Nat-
ural History ol. 1843-44 p 383.
Sa gthser ro Par guay 1840 ss. 51-6
²⁶The Ind Fild, March 4 1871
Illustrerte Thierl ben, B. i., ss. 9 82.

the well known traveller Schimper that in Abyssinia when the baboons belonging to one species (*C. gelada*) descend in troops from the mountains to plunder the fields they sometimes encounter troops of another species (*C. hamadryas*) and then a fight ensues. The *Geladas* roll down great stones which the *Hamadryas* try to avoid and then both species making a great uproar rush furiously against each other. Brehm when accompanying the Duke of Coburg Gotha acted in an attack with fire arms on a troop of baboons in the pass of Mensa in Abyssinia. The baboons in return rolled so many stones down the mountain some as large as the Duke's head that the Duke was obliged to retreat.

It is against the Duke of Coburg Gotha that these baboons thus acted in concert. Mr. Brehm mentions on three occasions that the baboons were injured by the Duke's bullets and the Duke was wounded with every shot.

Mr. Brehm's account of rage causing such a shower of missiles as effectually kept us from approaching too near the tree. As I have repeatedly seen a chimpanzee will throw any object at hand at a person who offends him and the before mentioned baboon at the Cape of Good Hope prepared mud for the purpose.

In the Zoological Gardens a monkey which had weak teeth used to break open nuts with a stone and I was assured by the keepers that after using the stone he hid it in the straw and would not let any other monkey touch it. Here then we have the idea of property but this idea is common to every dog with a bone and to most or all birds with their nests.

The Duke of Argyll remarks that the fashioning of an implement for a special purpose is absolutely peculiar to man and he considers that this forms an immeasurable gulf between him and the brutes. This is no doubt a very important distinction but there appears to me much truth in the fact that the chimpanzee can use a stick to pull down a piece of fruit.

It is from this step it would be a small one to break the flints on purpose and not a very wide step to fashion a spear.

At what time when elapsed before the men of the Malaya Archipelago in 1869 p. 87

In 1869 pp. 141 147
Alch. to C. T. m. 1863 p. 43 &c.

the neolithic period took to grinding and polishing their stone tools. In breaking the flints, as Sir J. Lubbock likewise remarks, sparks would have been emitted and in grinding them heat would have been evolved thus the two usual methods of obtaining fire may have originated. The nature of fire would have been known in the neolithic period.

For themselves temporary platforms but as many instincts are largely controlled by reason the imperiousness such as this of building a platform might readily pass into a voluntary and conscious act. The orang is known to cover its nest with leaves.

By throwing a straw mat over its head. In these several habits we probably see the first steps towards some of the simpler arts, such as rude architecture and dress, as they arose amongst the early progenitors of man.

Abstraction General Conceptions Self-consciousness Mental Individuality—It would be very difficult for any one with even much more knowledge than I possess to determine how far animals exhibit any traces of these high mental powers. The difficulty arises from the impossibility of judging what passes through the mind of an animal and I regret the fact that writers differ to a great extent in the meanings which they attribute to the above terms, causes a further difficulty. If one may judge from various articles which have been published lately the greatest stress seems to be laid on the supposed entire absence in animals of the power of abstraction or of forming general concepts. But when a dog sees another dog at a distance it is often clear that he perceives that it is a dog in the abstract for when he gets nearer his whole manner suddenly changes if the other dog be a friend. A recent writer remarks that in all such cases it is a pure assumption to assert that the mental act is not essentially of the same nature in the animal as in man. If either refers to what he perceives with his eyes to a mental concept then he is lost. When I say to my friend in an angry voice (and I have said the same many times) 'He is there' it takes at once takes it as a sign that something is to be intended and generally first looks quickly all around and then

Mr. Hooker in a letter to Prof. Max Müller in the *British Journal* of 1883.

rushes into the nearest thickets, to scent for
the game, but finding nothing, she looks up
into an neighbouring tree for a squirrel. Now
do these actions clearly show that she had
an intellectual idea or concept that

the man consequently the hypothesis is a false
one.
Lagrange.—This faculty has justly been
concedered as one of the chief distinctions be-
tween man and the lower animals. But man as
highly competent judge Archbishop Whately
remarks, is not the animal that can
make use of language to express what is pass-
ing in his mind and can understand more or
less, what is so expressed by another. In
proportion with *Columbarus* he is excited utterances

in consequence of the
consciousness. On the other hand as Büchner has
been remarked, how little can the hard worked
wife of a degraded Australian savage who uses
very few abstract words, and cannot count
above five exert his self-consciousness, re-
flect on the nature of his own existence. It is
generally admitted, that the higher animals
possess memory, intuition, association, and
some imagination and reason. If these
powers, which differ in kind and different animals,
are capable of improvement, there seems no
great improbability in more complicated facul-
ties, such as the higher forms of abstraction, and
self-consciousness, &c., having been developed
through the development and combination of
the simpler ones. It has been urged against the
higher maintenance that it is impossible to
say at what point the ascending scale of ani-
mals becomes capable of abstraction, &c. but
who can say at what stage this occurs in the
young children? We see that the child powers
are developed in children by imperceptible
degrees.

That animals retain their mental individual-
ity is unquestionable. When my voice walks
trajectories of association in the mind of the
before-me it is difficult to doubt that he retains
his mental individuality although every time
of his brain had probably undergone a change
more than once during the interval of his
existence. This doubt might be brought forward
the argument that I advanced to crush all
materialists, and said, I abide amid all mental
moods and all material changes. The
teaching that the material impressions as
legacies to the toms fall to the places
that have created is contradictory of the
existence of consciousness, and the reference
to the teaching necessitated by it

are understood by us, and as we
stand or sit, as Rengger and the others declare. It is
a more remarkable fact that the dog seems
being domesticated, has learnt to bark, and to
listen to the faintest distinct to es. With the

distinction of demand and application, as
when whistling for the dog to be opened.
According to Huxley, who paid particular
attention to the subject, the domesticated
utterances of the last degree significant sounds.¹⁰

The habitual use of articulate language is,
however peculiar to man but it is, in com-
mon with the lower animals, inarticulate cries

of pain, fear, surprise and together with
their appropriate actions, and the murmur of a
mother to her beloved child are more expres-
sive than any words. That which distinguishes
man from the lower animals is the und-
standing of articulate sounds, for as every
known sound is understood many words and so

¹⁰The Rev. Dr. J. M. Cann, *Anti-Darwinism*, 1869
p. 13.
Quoted in *Anthropological Review* 1864 p. 153.
Rengger *ibid.* p. 45.
¹¹See my *Psychology of Animals and Plants* under
Domestication, vol. I, p. 27.
¹²*Faculté Mentale des Animaux* tom. II, p. 2,
p. 346-349.
¹³See discussion on this subject in Mr. E. B. Ty-
lor's *Primitive Culture*, *Researches into the Early
History of Mankind*, 1863, chap. II.

¹⁰Conférence sur la Théorie Darwinienne, French
translation 1869 p. 152.

tences In this respect they are at the same stage of development as infants between the ages of ten and twelve months who understand many words and short sentences but cannot yet utter a single word It is not the mere articulation which is our distinguishing character for parrots and other birds possess this power Nor is it the mere capacity of connecting definite sounds with definite ideas for it is certain that some parrots which have been taught to speak connect unerringly words with things and persons with events²⁴ The lower animals differ from man solely in his almost infinitely larger power of associating together the most diversified sounds and ideas and this obviously depends on the high development of his mental powers

As Horne Tooke one of the founders of the

not a true instinct for every language has to be learnt It differs however widely from all ordinary arts for man has an instinctive tendency to speak as we see in the babble of our young children whilst no child has an instinctive tendency to brew bake or write Moreover no philologist now supposes that any language has been deliberately invented it has been slowly and unconsciously developed by many steps²⁵ The sounds uttered by birds offer in several respects the nearest analogy to

²⁴ I have received several detailed accounts of this effect from Admiral Sir B J Sullivan who mentions that he

language for all the members of the same species utter the same instinctive cries expressive of their emotions and all the kinds which sing exert their power instinctively but the actual song and even the call notes, are learnt from their parents or foster parents These sounds, as Daines Barrington²⁶ has proved are no more innate than language is in man The first attempts to sing may be compared to the imperfect endeavour in a child to babble The young males continue practising or as the bird catchers say recording for ten or eleven months Their first essays show hardly a rudiment of the future song but as they grow older we can perceive what they are aiming at and at last they are said to sing their song round Nestlings which have learnt the song of a distinct species as with the canary birds educated in the Tyrol teach and transmit their new song to their offspring The slight natural differences of song in the same species inhabiting different districts may be

instinctive tendency to acquire an art is not peculiar to man

With respect to the origin of articulate language after having read on the one side the highly interesting works of Mr Hensleigh Wedgwood the Rev F Farrar and Prof Schleicher²⁷ and the celebrated lectures of Prof Max Müller on the other side I cannot doubt that language owes its origin to the imitation and modification of various natural sounds, the voices of other animals and man's own instinctive cries aided by signs and gestures When we treat of sexual selection we shall see that primeval man or rather some early progenitor of man probably first used his voice in producing true musical cadences, that is in singing as do some of the gibbon apes at the present day and we may conclude from a widely spread analogy that this power would have been especially exerted during the

to persons arranged and good bye I will write to the directors I could hardly have been such a

²⁶ Hon Daines Barrington in *Philosophical Transactions* 1793 p 262 See also De Meuse in *Annales des Sciences Nat* 3rd series Zoology tome 1 p 119
²⁷ Hon Daines Barrington in *Philosophical Transactions*

co rtship of the sexes,—w ould h xpressed
an us m t ns, s h as l je l y tri
umph,—and w ld hav se ed as a chall g
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mutat n f mus cal n s by art culate sounds
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l as a l ng s ccessio f v id and connected
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dre ms We ha also een tl at animals are
ble to r aso to certain e te t, man f stly
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m wh h peech s pec ally affected as wh n
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f llow and sin ef w lsg dist t w a m ls
f dang n the gro d r n the ky fr m
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t in pec cu
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act d th pow f p ech B t tl el t n
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som early prog nat f m n m th bee
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pe, bef n th m t m perfect f m of
speed co ld h com to se b t w m y
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ad ancem t f th po w ld h re
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o g g t t ca y lo g t ains f th ght.
A compl t f th ght can m re b
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inh rited⁴

S e l write m re pecially Prof Max
Mull⁴ h l t ly ins ted th t th use of
l ngu g mplies the pow ff ming g n l
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t possess th pow an mpassabl bari is
f rmed b tw en them d man⁴ W th r pect
to anim ls, I ha al ady e d a red to

1875

so offe q ted, by Brehm nd Re gg

Il use gies ry cu sious coo t f his b-
serv t as th bject his *Facultés Mentales de*
Animals t m l, p 348.

⁴See remarks th h ad by D M daly *The*
Physiology and Pathology of M nd, 2nd ed 1868,
p. 199

guage, 1873 (third lecture) thus ph ism "Th re is
tho ght th t rds, as littl as th are
w rds th t th ght. Wh t tra g definiti
must h re be g t th w rd th ught!

tences In this respect they are at the same stage of development as infants between the ages of ten and twelve months who understand many words and short sentences but cannot yet utter a single word It is not the mere articulation which is our distinguishing character for parrots and other birds possess this power Nor is it the mere capacity of connecting definite sounds with definite ideas for it is certain that some parrots which have been taught to speak connect unerringly words with things and persons with events¹¹ The lower animals differ from man solely in his almost infinitely larger power of associating together the most diversified sounds and ideas and thus obviously depends on the high development of his mental powers

As Horne Tooke one of the founders of the

not a true instinct for every language has to be learnt It differs however widely from all ordinary arts for man has an instinctive tendency to speak, as we see in the babble of our young children whilst no child has an instinctive tendency to brew bake or write More over no philologist now supposes that any language has been deliberately invented it has been slowly and unconsciously developed by many steps¹² The sounds uttered by birds offer in several respects the nearest analogy to

language for all the members of the same species utter the same instinctive cries expressive of their emotions and all the kinds which sing exert their power instinctively but the actual song and even the call notes, are learnt from their parents or foster parents These sounds, as Daines Barrington¹³ has proved are no more innate than language is in man The first attempts to sing may be compared to the imperfect endeavour in a child to babble The young males continue practising or as the bird catchers say recording for ten or eleven months Their first essays show hardly a rudiment of the future song but as they grow older we can perceive what they are aiming at and at last they are said to sing their song round Nestlings which have learnt the song of a distinct species as with the canary birds educated in the Tyrol teach and transmit their new song to their offspring The slight natural differences of song in the same species inhabiting different districts may be

the languages of distinct races of man I have given the foregoing details to shew that an instinctive tendency to acquire an art is not peculiar to man

With respect to the origin of articulate language after having read on the one side the highly interesting works of Mr Hensleigh Wedgwood the Rev F Farrar and Mr Schleicher¹⁴ and the celebrated lectures of Prof Max Müller on the other side I cannot doubt that language owes its origin to the imitation and modification of various natural sounds the voices of other animals and man's own instinctive cries aided by signs and gestures When we treat of sexual selection we shall see that primeval man or rather some early progenitor of man probably first used his voice in producing true musical cadences that is in singing as do some of the gibbon apes at the present day and we may conclude from a widely spread analogy that this power would have been especially exerted during the

¹¹H. Daines Barrington *Joseph T. Anderson's* 1731 202 See *Durand's* *Museum* 4th ed. See *Natural History* Zoology 119
¹²W. H. W. Wood

¹³See *om* good remarks on this head by Prof Whitney in his *Oriental Linguistics* 1873 p. 354 He observes that the difference of communication between man and the living force which in the development of language works both consciously and unconsciously as regards the mind to be attained unconsciously as regards the further consequences of the act.

ease forms are constantly gaining the upper hand and thus we have access to their wisdom. To these more important causes of the survival of certain words, more may be added for their

to a seen, itself if ran. I find that man has been developed from some lower form. See *Faculty*—This sense has been declared inferior to man I refer to only to the forms

The perfectly regular and wisdom of man

of the inferior and superior. The former on the whole writes. In those languages which appear to be the lowest stage of intellectual culture we frequently observe errors in the formal degree of art the grammatical truth. The especially the case with the Basque and the Lapponian, and many of the American languages. But assuredly an inferior peak in language as an art with

did not birds, play the beautiful melody. As women everywhere deck themselves with these ornaments, the beauty of their ornaments cannot be disputed. As we shall see later the nests of humming birds, and the playful passage of the birds are fast full of meaning with the gaily-colored object and this shows that the nature of these ornaments is of pleasure from the effect of the colors. With the great ma

and as the word expresses the most business relations between object and person, this is not surprising that the syllable has been used by the most modern races and in the art of science. With respect to perfect illustration, the syllable is the most useful word in the world. Some times consists of a single letter, as in the 10,000 pieces of the alphabet arranged with the perfect memory. The radical lines of the alphabet do not contain an animal figure, but as more perfect than the natural with comparison of few parts, and with the fewest part of the alphabet the opposite sides of the body. The syllable consists of the differentiation and specialization of organs as the most perfect nature with languages the most minute and complete. The syllable can be ranked also irregular abbreviated and bastardized languages, which have borrowed expressions and useful forms for construction from an enormous number of immigrant races.

From these few and imperfect remarks I conclude that the extremely complex and regular construction of many barbarous languages, is no proof that they were the origin

the seasons of the year are certainly admitted by the farmers, of which fact I need not

the latter and play the harm before the males would have been thrown away and thus it is impossible to doubt. Why certain bright colors should attract the eye, I presume to be played any more than why certain flowers and seeds are green. But the harm has something to do with the result, for the two children at first unpleasant to the senses, ultimately become pleasant, and habits are inherited. With respect to sounds, H. Marsh has played the certain truth in phonological principles, which harmonies and certain cadences are green. But besides this, sound frequency is regular in regular intervals are highly disagreeable as every one will admit which has listened to the irregular flapping of a rope on board ship. The same

*Quoted by C. S. Walcott. *Chapters on Man*, 1863, p. 11.
Buckland, *Bridgegewater Treatise*, p. 411.

*See some good remarks on the simplification of languages, by J. Lubbock, *Origin of Civilization*, 1869, p. 123.

shew that they have this power at least in a rude and incipient degree As far as concerns infants of from ten to el

have not had their intellects developed to the same degree as that of man general causes only can be as igned

general ideas as quickly as they do unless such ideas were already formed in their minds The same remark may be extended to the more intelligent animals as Mr Leslie Stephen observes "A dog frames a general concept of cats or sheep and knows the corresponding words as well as a philosopher And the capacity to understand is as good a proof of vocal intelligence though in an inferior degree as the can

of development through which each creature has passed

The formation of different languages and of distinct species and the proofs that both have been developed through a gradual process are curiously parallel " But we can trace the formation of many words

any other organs it is not difficult to see Ants have considerable powers of intercommunication by means of their antennae as shewn by Huber who devotes a whole chapter to their language We might have used our fingers as efficient instruments for a person with practice can report to a deaf man every word of a speech rapidly delivered at a public meeting but the loss of our hands whilst thus employed would have been a serious inconvenience As all the higher mammals possess vocal organs constructed on the same general plan as ours and used as a means of communication it was obviously probable that these same organs would be still further developed if the power of communication had to be improved and this has been effected by the aid of adjoining and well adapted parts namely the tongue and lips " The fact of the higher apes not using their vocal organs for speech no doubt depends on their intelligence not having been sufficiently advanced The possession by them of organs which with long continued practice might have been used for speech although not thus used is paralleled by the case of many birds which possess organs fitted for singing though they never sing Thus the nightingale and crow have vocal organs similarly constructed these being used by the former for diversified song and by the latter only for croaking " If it be asked why apes

distinct languages striking homologies due to community of descent and analogies due to a similar process of formation The manner in which certain letters or sounds change when others change is very like correlated growth We have in both cases the reduplication of parts the effects of long-continued use and so forth The frequent presence of rudiments both in languages and in species is still more remarkable The letter *m* in the word *am* means *I* so that in the expression *I am* a superfluous and useless rudiment has been retained In the spelling also of words letters often remain as the rudiments of an ancient form of pronunciation

to descent or artificially by other characters Dominant line

reappears The same language never has two birth places Distinct languages may be crossed or blended together " We see variability in every tongue and new words are continually cropping up but as there is a limit to the powers of the memory single words like whole languages gradually become extinct As Max Müller⁶ has well remarked —

A struggle for life is constantly going on amongst the words and grammatical forms in each language The better the

⁶Essy F Th l g d 1873 p 82

⁶See s m good remarks to this effect by Dr M ud l y The Ph y l o l o g y and Pathology f M nd, 1868 p 199

⁶Ma gill ray H t f Brit h B d v l 1 1839 p 29 An c e l l e t b e r v r Mr B l e k a l l r e m k a that the magpie l r n s to p r o u c e g l w r d s and e n s h t n t e c e s m r e d l y than almost any other British bird yet as h adds, a f t r l o g i d

See t l r v n t u g p a r l l i n b e t c e t l d l i n t f p e c i a n l l i n g u a s s k l s C L y l l Th G o d g e a l F r i d n e f t h A n d q t y f M n, 1863 ch p x
⁶See rem k a t t h s e e t b y t h R F W F r r r s t t g a r t l t t l e d F h l l g s n d D r w a n V a l e M r e h 2 1 8 0 p 528
⁶V a l J n u r y 6 18 0 p 2

imagination, curiosity, reason, &c., had been fairly well developed in the mind of man, his dreams would not have led him to believe in spirits, any more than in the case of a dog.

The tendency in savages to imagine that natural objects and agencies are animated by spiritual or living essences, is perhaps illustrated by a little fact which I once noticed my dog, a full-grown and very sensible animal, was lying on the lawn during a hot and still day, but at a little distance slight breeze occasionally moved an open parasol, which would have been wholly disregarded by the dog, had any one stood near it. As it was, however, that the parasol slightly moved, the dog growled fiercely and barked. He must, I think, have reasoned to himself in rapid and unconscious manner that movement without any apparent cause indicated the presence of some strange living agent, and that no stranger had a right to be on his territory.

The belief in spiritual agencies would easily pass into the belief in the existence of one or more gods. For savages would naturally attribute to spirits the same passions, the same love of vengeance or simplest form of justice and the same affections which they themselves feel. The Egyptians appear to be in this respect in an intermediate condition, for when the surgeon on board the *Beagle* shot some young ducklings as specimens, Yrik Munster declared in the most solemn manner "Oh, Mr Bynoe, much rain, much snow, blow much, and this was your evil retribution punishment for wasting human food. So again he related how when his brother killed wild man, storms long raged, much rain and snow fell. Yet we could discover that the Fuegians believed in what we should call a God, or practised any religious rites, and I may mention, with justifiable pride, still maintained that there was no devil in his land. This latter assertion is the more remarkable, as

He then further shows that names or nicknames given from some animal or other object, to the early progenitors or founders of a tribe are supposed after long interval to represent the real progenitor of the tribe, and such animal or object is then naturally believed still to exist as a spirit, is held sacred, and worshipped as a god. Nevertheless I cannot but suspect that there is still earlier and sadder stage here, by which such manifest power or movement is thought to be endowed with some form of life, and such mental faculties analogous to our own.

with savages the belief in bad spirits is far more common than that in good ones.

The feeling of religious devotion is a highly complex one, consisting of love, complete submission to an exalted and mysterious person, a strong sense of dependence, fear, reverence, gratitude, hope for the future, and perhaps other elements. No being could experience so complex an emotion until advanced in his intellectual and moral faculties to at least a moderately high level. Nevertheless, we see some distant approach to this state of mind in the deep love of dogs for his master associated with complete submission, some fear and perhaps other feelings. The behaviour of a dog when returning to his master after an absence, and, as I may add, of a monkey to his beloved keeper is widely different from that towards their fellows. In the latter case the transports of joy are to be somewhat less, and the

as long as his reasoning powers remained poorly developed, to various strange superstitions and

superstitions, if they show us what an infinite debt of gratitude we owe to the improvement of our reason, to science, and to our accumulated knowledge. As Sir J. Lubbock has well observed, "it is not too much to say that the horrible dread of unknown evil hangs like a thick cloud over savage life, and mingles every pleasure." These miserable and indirect consequences of our highest faculties may be compared with the accidental and occasional mistakes of the instincts of the lower animals.

Journal of Mental Science, 1871, p. 43) that Bacon long ago, and the poet Burns, held the same notion. *Prichard's Treatise*, 2nd ed., p. 571. In this work (p. 571) there will be found an excellent account of the many strange and capricious customs of savages.

principle seems to come into play with vision as the eye prefers symmetry or figures with some regular recurrence. Patterns of this kind are employed by even the lowest savages as ornaments and they have been developed through sexual selection for the adornment of some male animals. Whether we can or not give any reason for the pleasure thus derived from vision and hearing yet man and many of the lower animals are alike pleased by the same colours, graceful shading and forms and the same sounds.

The taste for the beautiful at least as far as female beauty is concerned is not of a special nature in the human mind for it differs widely in the different races of man and is not quite the same even in the different nations of the same race. Judging from the hideous ornaments and the equally hideous music admired by most savages it might be urged that their æsthetic faculty was not so highly developed as in certain animals for instance as in birds. Obviously no animal would be capable of admiring such scenes as the heavens at night, a beautiful landscape or refined music but such high tastes are acquired through culture and depend on complex associations they are not enjoyed by barbarians or by uneducated persons.

Many of the faculties which have been of inestimable service to man for his progressive advancement such as the powers of the imagination, wonder, curiosity, an undefined sense of beauty, a tendency to imitation and the love of excitement or novelty could hardly fail to lead to capricious changes of customs and fashions. I have alluded to this point because a recent writer³ has oddly fixed on Caprice as one of the most remarkable and typical differences between savages and brutes. But not only can we partially understand how it is that man is from various conflicting influences rendered capricious but that the lower animals are as we shall hereafter see likewise capricious in their affections, aversions and sense of beauty. There is also reason to suspect that they love novelty for its own sake.

Belief in God—Religion—There is no evidence that man was aboriginally endowed with the ennobling belief in the existence of an Omnipotent God. On the contrary there is ample evidence derived not from hasty travellers but from men who have long resided with savages, that numerous races have existed

and still exist who have no idea of one or more gods and who have no words in their languages to express such an idea.⁴ The question is of course wholly distinct from that higher one whether there exists a Creator and Ruler of the universe and this has been answered in the affirmative by some of the highest intellects that have ever existed.

If however we include under the term religion the belief in unseen or spiritual agencies the case is wholly different for this belief seems to be universal with the less civilised races. Nor is it difficult to comprehend how it arose. As soon as the important faculties of the imagination, wonder and curiosity together with some power of reasoning had become partially developed man would naturally crave to understand what was passing around him and would have vaguely speculated on his own existence. As Mr M Lennan⁵ has remarked. Some explanation of the phenomena of life a man must fetch for himself and to judge from the universality of it, the simplest hypothesis and the first to occur to men seems to have been that natural phenomena are ascribable to the presence in animals, plants and things and in the forces of nature of such spirits prompting to action as men are conscious they themselves possess. It is also probable as Mr Fyler has shewn that dreams may have first given rise to the notion of spirits for savages do not readily distinguish between subjective and objective impressions. When a savage dreams, the figures which appear before him are believed to have come from a distance and to stand over him or the soul of the dreamer goes out on its travels and comes home with a remembrance of what it has seen.⁶ But until the faculties of

THE WISDOM OF AMERICA

behind the very vivid impression. It is clear that many instincts are directed, such as the thirst for hunger are in their nature for short duration and after being satisfied, are not readily or vividly recalled. *Thirdly* after the power of language had been acquired and the wish of the community could be expressed the common principle which each member ought to act for the public good, would not really become in the predominant guide to action. But it should be born in mind that however great we may make it, it is not the principle of our regard for the approbation and disapprobation of our fellow-creatures, which, as we shall see forms an essential part of the social instinct, and indeed is fundamental. *Lastly* habit and tradition would not be the primary important part in guiding the conduct of each member of the social instinct, but rather with sympathy as, like animals in

social animals, would gain in our supposed case as it appears to me, some feeling of right or wrong, or a conscience. For each individual would have an inward sense of possessing certain more enduring instincts, and would share in the misery would be felt, as past impressions were compared during their incessant passage through the mind. In this case an inward monitor would tell the animal that it would have been better to have followed the more improve rather than the other. The course which it has been followed and the other which it has not followed would have been recalled with the thought that the wrong but to the set forms I shall recur.

Sociality — Animals of many kind are social. I will find a number of species living together.

subordinate proposition must now be discussed, and some of them must be considered in length.

It must be well first to premise that I do not wish to maintain that an strictly social animal is totally deficient of faculties which would become as actions and as highly developed as in man, would acquire exactly the same moral sense as ours. I think the same manner as animals have some sense of better than the good, more would differ to objects, so that might have sense of right and wrong, though led by it to follow would different lines of conduct. If for instance to take an extreme case in nature, the red and precise the same condition as the bees, there can hardly be doubt that unmarried females would, like the workers, think it sacred to kill their brothers, and mothers would try to kill their fertile daughters and no one would think of interfering with their life, though any thing

lovely thing which returns with interest. Every one must have noticed how miserable horses, dogs, sheep, &c. are when separated from their companions, and what tremendous effects on the two former kinds,

insects, although some of these are social and aid in the human important ways. The most common mutual service in the high animal is warning on the other hand means the united sense of all. Every portman knows, as Dr. J. remarks, how difficult it is to approach animals in the herd troop. Wild horses and cattle do not, I believe, make an dangerous sign but their attitude of fear of the man who first discovers an animal warns the others. Rabbits

Mr. H. Sawback remarks, in a valuable discussion on the Faculty June 13, 1874, p. 251)

A worker bee would make a pure mistake of the popular question. Judging, however from the habits of many or most savages, man is the problem of male intelligence

she only looks at it, which she would doubtless admit, that the instincts of the bee have been acquired for the good of the community. It goes so far as to say that if the theory of the bees I outlined in this paper were generally accepted I cannot but believe that in the hour of their triumph would be sounded the knell of the virtue of mankind. It is to be hoped that the belief in the permanence of virtue on this earth is not held by many persons as now we know it.

CHAPTER IV

COMPARISON OF THE MENTAL POWERS OF MAN AND THE LOWER ANIMALS (Continued)

I -- of those differences the moral sense or conscience is by far the most important. This sense as Mackintosh² remarks has a rightful supremacy over every other principle of human action it is summed up in that short but imperious word *ought* so full of high significance. It is the most noble of all the attributes of man leading him without a moment's hesitation to risk his life for that of a fellow creature or after due deliberation impelled simply by the deep feeling of right or duty to sacrifice it in some great cause. Immanuel Kant exclaims 'Duty! Wondrous thought that worketh neither by fond insinuation flattery nor by any threat but merely by holding up thy naked law in the soul and so extorting for thyself always reverence if not always obedience before whom all appetites are dumb however secretly they rebel whence thy original'

being here included would inevitably acquire a moral sense or conscience as soon as its intellectual powers had become as well or nearly as well developed as in man. 1 or *firstly* the social instincts lead an animal to take pleasure in the society of its fellows to feel a certain amount of sympathy with them and to perform various services for them. The services may be of a definite and evidently instinctive nature or there may be only a wish and readiness as with most of the higher social animals, to aid their fellows in certain general ways. But these feelings and services are by no means extended to all the individuals of the same species only to those of the same association. *Secondly* as soon as the

passing it over and because as far as I know no one has approached it exclusively from the side of natural history. The investigation possesses also some independent interest as an attempt to see how far the study of the lower animals throws light on one of the highest psychical faculties of man.

The following proposition seems to me in a high degree probable--namely

of dissatisfaction or even misery which invariably results as we shall hereafter see from any unsatisfied instinct would arise as often as it was perceived that the enduring and always present social instinct had yielded to some other instinct at the time stronger but neither enduring in its nature nor leaving the permanent quality. Ought itself itself depicted

See footnote on this subject, Quoted from Ueber die Pflichten des Menschen 1801 p. 21 & Dictionnaire Ethical Phil. 183 p. 231 &c. Metaphysics of the translated by J. W. Semple Edinburgh 1836 p. 136

is the first of the 1800 (481) dictionnaire philosophique 1801

added by Brodbeck's translation of the animal psychology of 1801

of the 1801

Fjans, wh wh nthe rpare tsget ld rfall
ill, bury them sh u

Many animals, h we c ce tainly mp
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m y if hoose call th se ti n in ti c
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to gu th t g of k d f l g ad g
It m tb called ympathy th t l ad a cou
ro ad g t fly t any wh trik h

by screams and l t so d i t acted th baboon
th t w h e to escape, aft r as the
s f
B
tl

I agre w th Agassiz that d g possess som
thing ry lk a conscien e

Dogs possess some pow r f self-command
and th s doe n t appea to be wh lly the re
s lt of f r As B ubach remarks, they w ll
refrain f om te l g food in the absc ce of
t m Th h e long bee accepted as

was it was eally path tict se h w per
se ri g l t ed t l h h must s fce
d co f r th B l m¹³ tat th tw l n
baboo co fin m twasp rs ed t b p n
led th tl tried to protect him It m t
h bee ymp th n th cases bo g n
l h led th b boon and Cercop tlec t de
f d th y g com ad from th do s and
th ea l I w ll g nly tl instance f
mp th t and h ro co l t, n the case f
littl Am rican m k y Se al y rs g
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pe fl wa eck, fl ted h m wh it
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f i f tl keepe f ed th sam com
partm t, and as d ad f lly af d f th
gre t l loo X r t l s as soo as f w
his fr d peril h ru hed to th r scu d

¹³ J L bbock, *P history Times* 2 d ed p
446

As q ted by M L H Morgan, *The America*
B er 1868, p 22 Capt Stansbury lso g
tal rest g acco t f th m in hich y
y x pelican, carried w y by tro g tr am was
gu led ad becu ged ts it mpla to ach the
bore ly half dove ld r ds

As M B in tat s. Effects and t uff re
sp g s from ympathy proper *Mental nd Moral*
Science 1868, p 245

Illustrirte Thierleben, B l, 85

to de th But th dri himself as Dr Hooke
was as. red ran n rik Th f bearance
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anim l saw ud r f l proof f n bl fidel ty

All anim ls h g n a body wh ch d f d
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an tl and thos th t f ll w a leade mu t

ri says,²⁰ th t tl y can t d re e n a
m m t y part n from th h rd Tl y
ar ase t all l l a d accept th comm n

th se anim la f harn ss, w tch assid u ly
f those wh by graz g p rt h w lf

D F E pe t del Cl 1869 p 97

Die D ur ache Art Leh 1869 s. 54

²⁰ See also Hook *Il mal y J nals*, L u.

1854 p 333

Brehm, *Illustrirte Th l ben*, B l, s. 6

²⁰ See his trem ly t estu g paper *Gre-*
gari us ess C tl d M n, Macmill
Magazine, F b 1871 p 353

stamp loudly on the ground with their hind feet as a signal sheep and chamois do the same with their forefeet, uttering likewise a whistle

nely t

monkeys acts as the sentinel and utters cries expressive both of danger and of safety.³ Social animals perform many little services for each other: horses nibble and cows lick each other on any spot which itches; monkeys search each other for external parasites; and Bichm states that after a troop of the *Cercopithecus griseo-iridis* has rushed through a thorny brake each monkey stretches itself on a branch and another monkey sitting by conscientiously examines its fur and extracts every thorn or burr.

Animal also render more important services to one another thus wolves and some other beasts of prey hunt in packs and aid one another in attacking their victims I elicans fish in concert The Hamadryas baboons turn over stones to find insects &c and when they come to a large one as many as can stand round turn it over together and share the booty Social animals mutually defend each other Bull bison in N America, when there is danger drive the cows and calves into the middle of the herd whilst they defend the outside I shall also in a future chapter give an account of two young wild bulls at Chillingham attacking an old one in concert and of two stallions together trying to drive away a third stallion from a troop of mares In Abyssinia Brehm encountered a great troop of baboons who were crossing a valley some had already ascended the opposite mountain and some were still in the valley the latter were attacked by the dogs but the old males immediately hurried down from the rocks and with mouths widely opened roared so fearfully that the dogs quickly drew back They were again encouraged to the attack but by this time all the baboons had reached the height excepting a young one about six months old who loudly calling for aid climbed on a block of rock and was surrounded Now one of the largest males

a true hero came down again from the mountain slowly went to the young one coaxed him and triumphantly led him away—the dogs being too much astonished to make an attack. I cannot resist giving another scene which was witnessed by this same naturalist an eagle seized a young *Cercopithecus* which by clinging to a branch was not at once carried off it cried loudly for assistance upon which the other members of the troop with much uproar rushed to the rescue surrounded the eagle and pulled out so many feathers, that he no longer thought of his prey but only how to escape. This eagle as Brehm remarks, scarcely would ever again attack a single monkey of a troop.

It is cert ain that as ociated animals have a feeling of love for each other which is not felt by non social adult animals How far in most cases they actually sympathise in the pains and pleasures of others is more doubtful especially with respect to pleasures Mr Buxton however who had excellent means of ob servation states that hi macaws which lived free in Norfolk took an extravagant interest in a pair with a nest and whenever the female left it she was surrou ded by a troop cream ing horrible acclamations in her honour It is

surround and stare intently on a dying or lea
companion apparently however as Houzeau
remarks they feel no pity That animals some
times are far fr m feeling any sympathy is too
certain for they will expel a wound lea in
from the herd or gore or worry it to leath
This is almost the blackest fact in natural h
tory unle indeed the explanation which has
been suggested is true that their in tact or
rea on lea them to expel an injured compan
ion le t b asts of prey includin g man I could
be tempted to follow the troop In that case
their or duct is not m h v o se than that of
the North American Indians who lea e thir
feeble comrades to perish on the plain or the

*Mr. R. Brown in *Proc Zool Soc* 1868 p 409
Brehm *Illustrerte Thierleben* B 1864 52,
79 for the case of the monkey in the gut

the ld mal b boo s att ck g th d ga, see s. 79
and w th respect to the agle s 56

f e l M B l b l f n w h a t l a s e
f t h i l b t s f t h e k y t l t l y i t t
t h l f m g l l y k i g t t h r t o
g t l r T h e \ i t \ g l b t i H S
f n a l n d M g a. n e o f \ o t a l H t y N o
ember 1863 p 392.

others. But I cannot see how this is. We pass the fact that sympathy is excited in an animal, a rabbit stroked, a dog greeted, a bee fed, than by an indifferent person. The more sensitive of animals respond to all of these would affect call pains, disrepute, and associations. The explanation may lie in the fact that, with all animals, sympathy is directed solely towards the members of the same community and the relative welfare of the whole, and the behavior of members, but not to all

men. and to us, no doubt feel sympathy for the sufferings of their young, but not for that of other men. With mankind selfishness,

return to sympathy is much strengthened by habit. In his complex manner this feeling may be originated as that of high importance to all those animals which aid and defend another. It will have been increased through natural selection of those communities, which included the greatest number of the most sympathetic members, would flourish best, and rear the greatest number of offspring.

It is, however, impossible to decide in many cases which certain social instincts have been acquired through natural selection, are the indirect result of the instincts and faculties, such as sympathy, reason, experience, and a tendency to imitation, or again, whether they are simply the result of long-continued habit. So remarkable an instinct as the pacifist sentiment to warn the community of danger can hardly have been the indirect result of any of these faculties. It must, therefore, have been directly acquired. On the other hand, the habit followed by the males of some social animals of defending the community and of attacking the enemies, their presence in the community

is not derived from mutual sympathy

Of the various instincts and habits, some are much stronger than others. That is, some that give more pleasure in their performance and more distress in their prevention, than others. Of which is probably quite as important, they are through habitance more persistent. I followed, with the excitement of any special feeling of pleasure or pain. We are ourselves conscious that some habits are much more difficult to cure than others. Hence a struggle may often be observed in animals between different instincts, or between an instinct and some habit. I deposited a small bird, a grackle, after a short pause, hesitates, pursues again, or returns to his nest. As between the love of a female of her own species and her mate, she may be seen to link way to them, as if half ashamed of not accompanying him. But the most curious instance known to me of one instinct fighting the better of another, the migratory instinct conquering the maternal instinct. The female is wounded, a confined bird will, at the proper season, beat her breast against the wires of her cage, until it is bare and blood. It causes young salmon to leap to the fresh water in which they could continue to exist, and thus commit to suicide. Even a know how to fight the maternal instinct is, I admit, a timid bird to face great danger. The habit of self-preservation, nevertheless, the migratory instinct is so powerful, that fat in the autumn, swallows, house martins, and swifts frequently desert their old haunts, leaving them to perish miserably in their nests.

person, but not others in his stead, has been observed. In some cases, the individual who has been sacrificed, it appears to be the case, sympathy itself. It is, of course, a direct pleasure, in some manner, the error as before remarked, of almost every other instinct.

of G. A. Brown, 1883, p. 5. Similar cases have been observed in Canada by Mr. Adams. P. Science Review July 1st, p. 232.

associated as lions are always on the look-out for the individuals which wander from the herd

With respect to the impulse which leads certain animals to associate together and to aid one another in many ways we may infer that in most cases they are impelled by the same sense of satisfaction or well-being

Instinctive actions are checked. We see this in innumerable instances and it is illustrated in a striking manner by the acquired instincts of our domesticated animals thus a young shepherd dog delights in driving and running round a flock of sheep but not in worrying them a young fox hound delights in hunting a fox whilst some other kinds of dogs as I have witnessed utterly disregard foxes What a strong feeling of inward satisfaction must impel a bird so full of activity to brood day after day over her eggs Migratory birds are quite miserable if stopped from migrating perhaps they enjoy starting on their long flight but it is hard to believe that the poor pinnioned goose described by Audubon which started on foot at the proper time for its journey of probably more than a thousand miles could feel

As regards special enemies No one I presume can analyse the sensations of pleasure or pain In many instances however it is probable that instincts are persistently followed from the mere force of inheritance without the stimulus of either pleasure or pain A young pointer when he

acts thus either from pleasure or pain Hence the common assumption that men must be impelled to every action by experiencing some pleasure or pain may be erroneous Although a habit may be blindly and implicitly followed independently of any pleasure or pain felt at the moment yet if it be forcibly and abruptly checked a vague sense of dissatisfaction is generally experienced

It has often been assumed that animals were in the first place rendered social and that they feel as a consequence uncomfortable when separated

from each other and comfortable whilst together but it is a more probable view that these sensations were first developed in order that those animals which would profit by living in society should be induced to live together in the same manner as the sense of hunger and the pleasure of eating were no doubt first acquired in order to induce animals to eat The feeling of pleasure from society is probably an extension of the parental or filial affections since the social instinct seems to be developed by the young remaining for a long time with their parents and thus extension may be attributed in part to habit but chiefly to natural selection With those animals which were benefited by living in close association, the individuals which took the greatest pleasure in society would best escape various dangers whilst those that cared least for their comrades and lived solitary would perish in greater numbers With respect to the origin of the parental and filial affections, which apparently lie at the base of the social instincts, we know not the steps by which they have been gained but we may infer that it has been to a large extent through natural selection So it has almost certainly been with the unusual and opposite feeling of hatred between the nearest relations as with the worker bees which kill their brother drones and with the queen bees which kill their daughter queens the desire to destroy their nearest relations having been in this case of service to the community Parental affection or some feeling which replaces it has been developed in certain animals extremely low in the scale for example in starfishes and spiders It is also occasionally present in a few members alone in a whole group of animals, as in the genus *Oricula* or earwigs

The all important emotion of sympathy is distinct from that of love A mother may passionately love her sleeping and passive infant but she can hardly at such time be said to feel sympathy for it The love of a man for his dog is distinct from sympathy and so is that of a dog for his master Adam Smith formerly argued as has Mr Bain recently that the basis of sympathy lies in our strong tendency of former states of pain

a painful even in idea. We are thus impelled to relieve the suffering of another in order that at our own painful feelings may be at the same time relieved In like manner we are led to participate in the pleasures of

— concerned many instances have

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Or ly does he regret h t l n food from
l ng

It is e id t in th first place th t w th
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t es, w ank all act ns of certain class as
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f d t nct of t l k d s A far as xalted

I refer h re t the d t c t u bet ee hat has
bee called material nd formal m xalt y I am glad
to find that Professor H l e, (*Crit q nd Id-*
d se 1873, p. 287) takes th sam w th
t ject as I do. M Lesue t ph remarks (*Essay*
f ee Th al g nd f l a s p e k g 1873 p. 83),
"Th metaphysical distinct bet ee material nd
formal morali y is as irreleva t as the uch dis-
tinction."

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B t to ret r m t u m re mmed t b-
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social nst ts (l d g th l f praise
and f ar f blame) possess gre t r tre gtl

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g m I d n s h preferred be g h t aft
th ther t betray gth pla of th r compa us
ar (*J rnal f Researche* 1845 p 103)

We can perceive that an instinctive impulse if it be in any way more beneficial to a species than some other or opposed instinct would be rendered the more potent of the two through natural selection for the individuals which had it most strongly developed would survive in larger numbers. Whether this is the case with the migratory in comparison with the maternal instinct may be doubted. The great persistence or steady action of the former at certain seasons of the year during the whole day may give it for a time paramount force.

Man a social animal—Every one will admit that man is a social being. We see this in his dislike of solitude and in his wish for society beyond that of his own family. Solitary confinement is one of the severest punishments which can be inflicted. Some authors suppose that man primevally lived in single families but at the present day though single families or only two or three together roam the solitudes of some savage lands they always as far as I can discover hold friendly relations with other families inhabiting the same district. Such families occasionally meet in council and unite for their common defence. It is no argument against savage man being a social animal that the tribes inhabiting adjacent districts are almost always at war with each other for the social instincts never extend to all the individuals of the same species. Judging from the analogy of the majority of the Quadrumana it is probable that the early ape-like progenitors of man were likewise social but this is not of much importance for us. Although man as he now exists has few special instincts having lost any which his early progenitors may have possessed this is no reason why he should not have retained from an extremely remote period some degree of instinctive love and sympathy for his fellows. We are indeed all conscious that we do possess such sympathetic feelings²² but our consciousness does not tell us whether they are instinctive having originated long ago in the same manner as with the lower animals or whether they have been acquired by each of us during our early years. As man is a social animal it is almost certain that he would inherit a tendency to be faithful to his comrades and

obedient to the leader of his tribe for these qualities are common to most social animals.

desires

The social animals which stand at the bottom of the scale are guided almost exclusively and those which stand higher in the scale are largely guided by special instincts in the aid which they give to the members of the same community but they are likewise in part impelled by mutual love and sympathy assisted apparently by some amount of reason. Although man as just remarked has no special instincts to tell him how to aid his fellow men he still has the impulse and with his improved intellectual faculties would naturally be much guided in this respect by reason and experience. Instinctive sympathy would also cause him to value highly the approbation of his fellows for as Mr Bain has clearly shown²³ the love of praise and the strong feeling of glory

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highest degree by the wishes approbation and blame of his fellow men as expressed by their gestures and language. Thus the social instincts which must have been acquired by man in a very rude state and probably even by his early ape-like progenitors still give the impulse to some of his best action but his actions are in a higher degree determined by the expressed wishes and judgment of his fellow men and unfortunately very often by his own strong selfish interests. But a love sympathy and if-companimental comfort strengthened by habit and as the power of reasoning becomes clearer so that man can value justly the judgments of his fellows he will feel himself impelled apart from any transitory pleasure or pain to certain lines of conduct. He might then declare—not that any barbarian or uncultivated man could thus think—I am the supreme judge of my own conduct and in the words of Kant I will not in my own person violate the dignity of humanity.

The more enduring social instincts conquer the less persistent instincts—We have not however as yet considered the main point on which from our present point of view the

²² *Ment. and Moral Sci.* 1864 p. 231

²³ *Human Rights (in Enquiry Concerning the Rights of Man)* 1791 p. 132. Thore

be apt to follow the troop impulse and though this may occasionally prompt him to do as he pleases, I will nevertheless lead

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that a man, to sat fy his use f duty to his w
It ld h m that if h d d so I w uld se d h m
t prison f r life He remained about th farm
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complained tl at he could n t est o e t, th t
his wife p nt was haunting him, because he
had n t tak n a lif f r h rs I was ine o able,
and assured l m th t n thng h uld save h m
if h did N rth l ss the man disappeared
f m re than year and th n returned n
h gh co dition and his the wif told D
Land th th hu band had taken the life of
a w man b l g t d tant tribe b t t
was imposs bl t bta n gal de ce of th
Th h h f rul l ld sacred by th

[illegible]

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which w call regret, sh m re pe tance r re-
m se d pe d pp re tly n t ly o th
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f reason; g t th rem t co seq ce f
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 wh l t t lghbl th t a man urged by so
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have through long habit acquired greater strength than the instincts of all the other animals.

... as followed the one natural impulse rather than the other and why does he further feel that he ought to regret his conduct? Man in this respect differs profoundly from the lower animals. Nevertheless we can I think see with some degree of clearness the reason of this difference.

Man from the remotest times has been a social animal. His mind is always working, and now with those animals which live permanently in a body the social instincts are ever present and persistent. Such animals are always ready to utter the proper signal to defend the community and to give aid to their fellows in accordance with their habits; they feel at all times without the stimulus of any special passion or desire some degree of love and sympathy for them; they are unhappy if long separated from them and always happy to be again in their company. So it is with ourselves.

Love and sympathy are fundamental elements of the social instincts. A man who possessed no trace of such instincts would be an unnatural monster. On the other hand,

... feeling for instance of hunger nor indeed as has often been remarked of any suffering. The instinct of self-preservation

... against his enemy face to face. The wish for another man's property is perhaps a persistent desire as any that can be named but even in this case the satisfaction of actual possession is generally a weaker feeling than the desire of many a thief if not an habitual one after success has wondered why he stole some article.

A man cannot prevent past impressions often repassing through his mind; he will thus be driven to make a comparison between the impressions of past hunger and vengeance satisfied or danger shunned at other men's cost with the almost ever present instinct of sympathy and with his early knowledge of what others consider as praiseworthy or blameable. This knowledge cannot be banished from his mind and from instinctive sympathy is esteemed of great moment. He will then feel as if he had been balked in following a present instinct or habit and thus with all animals causes dissatisfaction or even misery.

The above case of the swallow affords an illustration though of a reversed nature of a temporary though for the perfect, at the winter season these birds seem all lay long to be impressed with the desire to migrate; their habits change they become restless, are noisy and congregate in flocks. Whilst the mother bird is feeding or brooding over her nestlings the maternal instinct is probably stronger than the migratory but the instinct which is the more persistent gains the victory and at last at a moment when her young ones are not in sight she takes flight and desert them. When arrived at the end of her long journey and the migratory instinct has ceased to act what an immense distance

... constantly passing through her mind of her young ones perishing in the bleak north from cold and hunger.

At the moment of action man will no doubt

... necessary to tell the tale of the same family by the light of the sun and the moon in the night sky the present and the past.

... necessary to tell the tale of the same family by the light of the sun and the moon in the night sky the present and the past.

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as a es tak h mrl pla re n ruity to animals,² and h manit a unkn wn rt e Ne rth l ss, be d th family affectu ns, kindness is comm n, epecially d n g chn ss, bet ee th m mbers f th sam trib and

ne been highly steemed As no man can pact se th rt e necessary fo the w lfare f his tribe witho t self sacrifice self-com mand and the pow r of endurance these qual ti h v be n at all time ghly and m st j tly al ed Th Am rian savag ol nta nly s bmt t th m th rdt rtu es w thout a groan t pro and trengthen hi f rtude and co rag aud w ann t l lp adm ring lum r nan Indian Fak wl fro a fool sl rel ga m tve w ngs su pended by a hook buried in hi flesh

Th oth r so-called self regarding virt es, which do n t b usly tho gh they ma really affect tl welfare f the tribe l ne r been e teemed by savages, tho gh n w h hly ppreci ted by civilised nat ons. The re test i temperance is o repro ch w th sa g s. Utte licent sn ss, and u n t ral rimes, pre ault an ast uni g t t³ As soo l w as m rriage, wh t r polyg m us, m gam us, becomes comm n, l ousy ill ad to th incul at n ff male r t l t l s, bei g ho ured w l t d to

t are bet ee th m mbers f th sam tribe thus Mungo Park h and th n rowom t aching the y g hildren to l the truth Th s, again, is f th rt es w ch b comes so deepl rooted in th mi d, th t t is som times p actised by sa ges, n t a l gh eo t, t ard t ang b t to li to y ur my has rarely bec th ght as th hi tory f mod rn dipl mac too plainly sh ws. l soo as tribe has reco mised l d dis bed ce becomes rim anl n abject bmissa looked t as sa red rt As d n g rud t m man an be useful faithful to h tribe w th t co rage, th q alt has un rsall bec placed in th high est rank and alth gl ci lised countries good t t m d man m be far m re usef l to th comm t than b e we cann t h lp in t oct ly h no n g th latter abo co and ho be l t. Prud ce the th hand h l does t concern th w lfare of th rs, th gh ry sel l rt e has

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ings n tl walls f P mpc and by tl p ac t ce f man sa g s.

th t f the spec s, that f an d d al m mbe f tl trib Th ce l sa g ce well w th the bel f tl t tl so-called m ral sense bo g ally d n ed from tl social int t, f botl relat t first e l ly t the comm nity

Th hi f se f the l w mo al ty of sa

¹ See M B g hot, *Physic and Politics*, 18 2, p. 2.

² See, for stance M Hamilton acco t of the *Kaffirs*, *Anthropological Review* 18 0, p.

Mr M Le nan ha g (*P m duse M m r ge* 1865 p. 1 6) good or l cti d facts thus head. *Lecky Histo f E pe M l x*, ol 1, 1869 p. 1 9

Embassy to Ch a, vol. p 318.

last yield instantly and without a struggle to his social sympathies and instincts including his feeling for the judgment of his fellows. The still hungry or the still revengeful man will not think of stealing food or of wreaking his vengeance. It is possible or as we shall hereafter see even probable that the habit of self command may like other habits be inherited. Thus at last man comes to feel through acquired and perhaps inherited habit that it is best for him to obey his more persistent impulses. The imperious word *ought* seems merely to imply the consciousness of the existence of a rule of conduct however it may have originated. Formerly it must have been often vehemently urged that an insulted gentleman *ought* to fight a duel. We even say that a pointer *ought* to point and a retriever to retrieve game. If they fail to do so they fail in their duty and act wrongly.

If any desire or instinct leading to an action opposed to the good of others still appears when recalled to mind as strong as or stronger than the social instinct a man will feel no keen regret at having followed it but he will be conscious that if his conduct were known to

If he has no such sympathy and if his desires leading to bad actions are at the time strong and when recalled are not overmastered by the persistent social instincts and the judgment of others then he is essentially a bad man⁹ and the sole restraining motive left is the fear of punishment and the conviction that in the long run it would be best for his own selfish interests to regard the good of others rather than his own.

It is obvious that every one may with an easy conscience gratify his own desires if they do not interfere with his social instincts that is with the good of others but in order to be quite free from self reproach or at least of anxiety it is almost necessary for him to avoid the disapprobation whether reasonable or not of his fellow men. Nor must he break through the fixed habits of his life especially if these are supported by reason for if he does he will assuredly feel this action. He must likewise avoid the reprobation of the one God or gods in whom according to his knowledge or super-

stition he may believe but in this case the additional fear of divine punishment often supervenes.

The strictly Social Virtues at first alone regarded—The above view of the origin and nature of the moral sense which tells us what we ought to do and of the conscience which reproves us if we disobey it accords well with

rude men so that they may associate in a body are those which are still recognised as the most important. But they are practised almost exclusively in relation to the men of the same tribe and their opposites are not regarded as crimes in relation to the men of other tribes. No tribe could hold together if murder robbery treachery &c were common consequently such crimes within the limits of the same tribe are branded with everlasting infamy¹¹ but excite no such sentiment beyond these limits. A North American Indian is well pleased with himself and is honoured by others when he scalps a man of another tribe and a Dyak cuts off the head of an unoffending person and dries it as a trophy. The murder of infants has prevailed on the large scale throughout the world¹² and has met with no reproach but infanticide especially of females has been thought to be good for the tribe or at least not injurious. Suicide during former times was not generally considered as a crime¹³ but rather from the courage displayed as an honourable act and it is still practised by some semi civilised and savage nations without reproach for it does not obviously concern others of the tribe. It has been recorded that an Indian Thug conscientiously regretted that he had not robbed and strangled as many travellers.

Lecky II i y f F ope n Mo l L 1869
p 223 With respect to s. g s. M W n 1

in d see Th i y p f th N ra l f r the
M t i l l d s Mull q t d l y H uze u
Le F c l l t M n l e d e t m u p 130

have been entirely different conscience.

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 f thers) ha ng se ed as th primary m
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 ture in th base p n ciple f selfishn ss
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 animal feels, wi t f ll w ts proper insti ts,
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 calld selfish.

The wishes and opinions of the members of the same community expressed at first orally but later by writing also the following sole principles for record that greatly reflect the

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⁴Good instances are given by M. W. Haeckel in *Scientific Optimism*, Sept. 15, 1869, and more fully in his contributions to *Theory of Natural Selection*, 1880, p. 333.

ages as judged by our standard are firstly the confinement of sympathy to the same tribe Secondly powers of reasoning insufficient to recognise the bearing of many virtues especially of the self regarding virtues on the general welfare of the tribe Savages for instance fail to trace the multiplied evils consequent on a want of temperance chastity &c And thirdly weak power of self-command for this power has not been strengthened through long continued perhaps inherited habit instruction and religion

I have entered into the above details on the immorality of savages because some authors have recently taken a high view of their moral nature or have attributed most of their crimes to mistaken benevolence³⁹ These authors appear to rest their conclusion on savages possessing those virtues which are serviceable or even necessary for the existence of the family and of the tribe—qualities which they undoubtedly do possess and often in a high degree

Concluding Remarks—It was assumed for merely by philosophers of the derivative school of morals that the foundation of morality lay in a form of Selfishness but more recently the Greatest happiness principle has been brought prominently forward It is however more correct to speak of it as

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orks
vite

³⁹ Southey's copious and nice chapter vi of *St. J. Lubbock's Origin of Civilisation* 1860 For instance Lecky *History of European Morals* vol. i p. 124

This term is used in an able article in the *Westminster Review* Oct. 1869 p. 498 For the Greatest happiness principle see *J. S. Mill's Utilitarianism* p. 448

⁴⁰ Mill recognises (*Syst. of Logic* vol. i p. 422) in the elementary naturalistic theory of the progress of mankind through habit that the principle of pleasure Mill has taken to be the basis of the assurance of the *Teleology*

as if there must be a distinct motive for every action and that this must be associated with some pleasure or displeasure But man seems often to act impulsively that is from instinct or long habit without any consciousness of pleasure in the same manner as does probably a bee or ant when it blindly follows its instincts Under circumstances of extreme peril as during a fire when a man endeavours to save a fellow creature without a moment's hesitation he can hardly feel pleasure and still less has he time to reflect on the dissatisfaction which he might subsequently experience if he did not make the attempt Should he afterwards reflect over his own conduct he would feel that there lies within him an impulsive power widely different from a search after pleasure or happiness and this seems to be the deeply planted social instinct

In the case of the lower animals it seems much more appropriate to speak of their social instincts as having been developed for the general good rather than for the general happiness of the species The term general good may be defined as the rearing of the greatest number of individuals in full

both of man and the lower animals have undoubtedly been developed by nearly the same step it would be advisable if found practicable to use the same definition in both cases and to take as the standard of morality the general good or welfare of the community rather than the individual

When a man risks his life to save that of a fellow creature it seems also more correct to say that he acts for the

even at an early period in the history of man the expressive wish of the community will have naturally influenced to a large extent the conduct of action and as all will for happiness the result will be

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respect to the latter theory the standard and the matter of conduct has indeed been confused but they are really not so much confused

desires. Thus, as M. Galton* has remarked
is all that is reprising as man has emerged
from that of barbarism with a copy
of the recent period. After this is added to
some implant we feel sense of dissat-
isfaction. In repetition remain anal-
gous to the feeling caused by the position
of the desire, when left unsatisfied or
in the way compare the awakened impres-

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c h a r g e o f t h e s t r o p h a n s b u t t h e y w o u l d b e
f r e e d t o a c k n o w l e d g e t h a t d i s i n t e r e s t e d l o e
f r a l l i g e n e r e t r e s, t h e m o s t n i l e a t t r i b u t e
o f m a n w a s q u i t b e d t h e c o m p r e h e n s i o

We tell us the difference in mind between man and the higher animals, great as it is, certainly some degree of ot-fish-d. We have seen that the sense-adaptations, the various emotions and faculties, such as love, memory, attention, nobility, moral reason, &c. of which man boasts, may be found in various, even in some times in a wild animal.

to
cert. in mental powers, last of them

if n Look g t f t r e g t i n s.
th r e t f a r t h a t t h s o c i a l t i s
l l g r o w k a n d w e m a x p e c t t h t
t w o h a b i t s w i l l g r o w t r o g r b e c o m m e n g p e r
h i f i x e d b y n h i t a n c e I t h i c a s e t t r u g
g l e b e t e h i h a n d l o e m p l s e w i l l
b e l a s s e r e, a n d r t e w i l l b e t r i u m p h a n t

It is of a highly advanced intellectual

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the mind f th l west man and th t f th
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h could f m an artf l plant pl d gar
d —th gl h co ld se t f fighting
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of fash nng to to a tool was quit be u
d his scope Still less, as h w ld admit,
co ld l f flow t train f m t physical
reasoning sol m th matical probl m,
reflect God admire grand t ral
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 t h p r i m p r i c p l e f m a n s m r a l c o n s t i
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 a n d t h e f f e c t s f h a b i t, n a t u r a l l y l a d t o
 t h e g l d n r u l e “A s y w l d t h a t m a n s h l d
 d t y u d y t t l m l k w s e n d t h u s
 h t t h f d t u n f m r a l i t y

In this next chapter I shall make some few remarks on the probabilities and manner by which the several mental and moral faculties of man have been gradually led to the condition in which they are at present. I shall first consider the gradual development of the faculties of the mind, and then the faculties of the body, and finally the faculties of the soul.

Marcus Aurelius, *Meditations* Bk. 1 sect. 25

has remarkable work Hereditary Genes, 1869, p. 349 The Duke of Argyll (Primrose M. N., 1869 p. 185) has some good remarks the on test ma nature bet cc ght and ro g.

our thoughts and not even in inmost thought to think again the sins that made the past so pleasant to us. "Whatever makes any bad action familiar to the mind renders its performance by so much the easier." As Marcus Aurelius long ago said: "Such as are thy habitual thoughts, such also will be the character of thy mind; for the soul is dyed by the thoughts."

Our great philosopher Herbert Spencer has recently explained his views on the moral sense. He says: "I believe that the experiences of utility organised and consolidated through all past generations of the human race have been producing corresponding modifications, which by continued transmission and accumulation have become in us certain faculties of moral in-

stinct. It appears probable, at least in such cases as chastity, temperance, humanity to animals, &c. that they become first impressed on the mental organization through habit instruction

possessing such virtues having succeeded best in the struggle for life. My chief source of doubt with respect to any such inheritance is that senseless customs, superstitions and tastes, such as the horror of a Hindoo for unclean food, ought on the same principle to be transmitted. I have not met with any evidence in support of the transmission of superstitious customs or senseless habits, although in itself it is perhaps not less probable than that animals should acquire inherited tastes for certain kinds of food or fear of certain foes.

Finally the social instincts, which no doubt were acquired by man as by the lower animals for the good of the community, will from the first have given to him some wish to aid his

There is not the least inherent improbability as it seems to me, in virtuous tendencies being more or less strongly inherited, for not to mention the various dispositions and habits transmitted by many of our domestic animals to their offspring. I have heard of authentic cases in which a desire to steal and a tendency to lie appeared to run in families of the upper ranks, and as stealing is a rare crime in the wealthy classes we can hardly account by accidental coincidence for the tendency occurring in two or three members of the same family. If bad tendencies are transmitted, it is probable that good ones are likewise transmitted. That the state of the body by affecting the brain has great influence on the moral tendencies is known to most of those who have suffered from chronic derangements of the digestion or liver. The same fact is likewise shewn by the perversion or destruction of the moral sense being often one of the earliest symptoms of mental derangement, and insanity is notoriously often inherited. Except through the principle of the transmission of moral tendencies we cannot understand the differences believed to exist in this respect between the various races of mankind.

Even the partial transmission of virtuous tendencies would be an immense assistance to the primary impulse derived directly and indirectly from the social instincts. Admitting for a moment that virtuous tendencies are inher-

more remote consequences of his actions, as he acquired sufficient knowledge to reject baneful customs and superstitions, as he regarded more and more not only the welfare but the happiness of his fellow men, as from habit following on beneficial experience, instruction and example his sympathies became more tender and widely diffused, extending to men of all races to the imbecile, maimed and other useless members of society, and finally to the lower animals, — so would the standard of his morality rise higher and higher. And it is admitted by moralists of the derivative school and by some intuitionists that at the standard of morality has risen since an early period in the history of man.

As a struggle may sometimes be seen going on between the various instincts of the lower animal, it is not surprising that there should be a struggle in man between his social instincts with their derived virtues, and his lower though momentarily stronger impulses

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 "Lett. to Mr. Mill, N.B. 1. 3. M. n. l. d. M. al.
 Scienc. 1868, p. 722.
 "Maudslayi, Bodj. nd. M. nd. 18. 0. p. 60.

T. n. y. s. n. Idyll. f. the. K. g. p. 14.
 "Marcus. V. l. Med. tat. o. Bk. V. s. t.

in man b t n th r m abilit n kn wled
permits the tl mpt.

It deserves notice that, as soon as the prog-
nit rs f man becam social (and thus prob-
abl occurred t e earl period) th prin-
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ool traces in th f w animals. Ipes are
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ges and th mpl fact pre ulsly ref rred
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t l. en if th y left children, th tribe
would till nclud their blood relati ns and t
has bee ascertai ed by agriculturists* that by
preservin and breedin from th famul f an
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be aluabl th desired charact has been
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path fid lity and courage. Such social q ali-
The g r instances in my l rations of A mous
nder Domesticaion, ch. u, p. 196.

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thro gh nat ral selecti n, that is, by th

Two remarkable series of studies in Physics
and Politics, in th Fort Ady Review N 1867
April 1, 1868 July 1 1869 since separately pub-
lished.

CHAPTER V

ON THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE INTELLECTUAL AND MORAL FACULTIES
DURING PRIMEVAL AND CIVILISED TIMES

THE subjects to be discussed in this chapter are of the highest interest but are treated by me in an imperfect and fragmentary manner. Mr Wallace in an admirable paper before referred to¹ argues that man after he had partially acquired those

means for man is enabled through his mental faculties to keep with an unchanging life.

and various stratagems to procure food and to defend himself. When he migrates into a colder climate he uses clothes, buildsheds and milk.

At a remote period he practised some division of labour

The lower animals on the other hand must have their bodily structure modified in order to survive under greatly changed conditions. They must be rendered stronger or acquire more effective teeth or claws for defence against new enemies or they must be reduced in size so as to escape detection and danger. When they migrate into a cooler climate they must become clothed with thick fur or have their constitutions altered. If they fail to be thus modified they will cease to exist.

The case however is widely different as Mr Wallace has with justice insisted in relation to the intellectual and moral faculties of man These faculties are variable and we have every reason to believe that the variations tend to be inherited Therefore if they were formerly of high importance to primeval man and to his ape like progenitors they would have been perfected or advanced through natural selection Of the high importance of the intellectual faculties there can be no doubt for man mainly owes to them his predominant position in the world We can see that in the rudest state of society the individuals who were the most sagacious who invented and

used the best weapons or traps and who were best able to defend their

could increase in number and supplant other tribes. Numbers depend primarily on the means of subsistence and thus depend partly on the physical nature of the country but in a much higher degree on the arts which are there practised. As a tribe increases and is victorious it is often still further increased by the absorption of other tribes. The stature and strength of the men of a tribe

It can be obtained. In Europe the men of the Bronze period were supplanted by a race more powerful and judging from their sword handles with larger hands but their success was probably still more due to their superiority in the arts.

All that we know about savages or may infer from their traditions and from old monuments the history of which is quite forgotten by the present inhabitant shew that from the remotest times successive

regions of the earth on the wild plains of America and on the isolated islands in the Pacific Ocean. At the present day civilised nations are everywhere supplanting barbarous nations, excepting where the climate opposes a deadly barrier.

selection and this conclusion is sufficient for our purpose. Undoubtedly it would be interesting to trace the development of each separate faculty from the state in which it exists in the lower animals to that in which it exists

All at m th m m b e r s f r i b e s w h h a r e b
s o r t e d t o t h e r t b n a s s e r l l y
M r k s (1 c e t L a w 1 6 6 1 p 1 3 1) d l l
t h y t h o d e n d n t s f t h s a m c e t r e
M l t , d o c f u d d v a l 1 6 6 0 p 2 9 1

survival of the fittest for we are not here speaking of one tribe being victorious over another

Although the circumstances leading to an increase in the number of those thus endowed within the same tribe are too complex to be clearly followed out we can trace some of the probable steps. In the first place as the reasoning powers and foresight of the members became improved each man would soon learn that if he aided his fellow men he would commonly receive aid in return. From this low

of sympathy which gives the first impulse to benevolent actions. Habits moreover followed during many generations probably tend to be inherited.

But another and much more powerful stimulus to the development of the social virtues is afforded by the praise and the blame of our fellow men. To the instinct of sympathy as we have already seen it is primarily due that we habitually bestow both praises and blame on others whilst we love the former and dread the latter when applied to our selves and thus instinct no doubt was originally acquired like all the other social instincts through natural selection. At how early a period the progenitors of man in the course of their development became capable of feeling and being impelled by the praise or blame of their fellow creatures we cannot of course say. But it appears that even dogs appreciate encouragement, praise and blame. The rudest savages feel the sentiment of glory as they clearly show by preserving the trophies of their prowess by their habit of excessive boasting and even by the extreme care which they take of their personal appearance and decorations for unless they regarded the opinion of their comrades such habits would be senseless.

They certainly feel shame at the breach of some of their lesser rules and apparently remorse as shewn by the case of the Australian who grew thin and could not rest from having delayed to murder some other woman so as to propitiate his dead wife's spirit. Though I have not met with any other recorded case it is scarcely credible that a savage who will sacrifice his life rather than betray his tribe or one who will deliver himself up as a prisoner rather than break his parole would not feel remorse.

Mr Wallace's cases of social instincts to the *Theory of Natural Selection*, 1880 p. 354.

in his inmost soul if he had failed in a duty which he held sacred.

We may therefore conclude that primeval man at a very remote period was influenced by the praise and blame of his fellows. It is obvious that the members of the same tribe would approve of conduct which appeared to them to be for the general good and would reprobate that which appeared evil. To do good unto others—to do unto others as we would they should do unto you—is the foundation stone of morality. It is, therefore, hardly possible to exaggerate the importance during rude times of the love of praise and the dread of blame. A man who was not impelled by any deep instinctive feeling to sacrifice his life for the good of others yet was roused to such actions by a sense of glory would by his example excite the same wish for glory in other men, and would strengthen by exercise the noble feeling of admiration. He might thus do far more good to his tribe than by begetting offspring with a tendency to inherit his own high character.

With increased experience and reason man perceives the more remote consequences of his actions and the self-regarding virtues such as temperance, chastity, &c. which during early times are as we have before seen utterly disregarded come to be highly esteemed or even held sacred. I need not however repeat what I have said on this head in the fourth chapter. Ultimately our moral sense or conscience becomes a highly complex sentiment—originating in the social instincts largely guided by the approbation of our fellow men ruled by reason, self-interest and in later times by deep religious feeling and confirmed by instruction and habit.

yet that an increase in the number of well-endowed men and an advancement in the standard of morality will certainly give an immense advantage to one tribe over another. A tribe including many members who from possessing in a high degree the spirit of patriotism, fidelity, obedience, courage, and sympathy were always ready to aid one another and to sacrifice themselves for the common good would be victorious over most other tribes and it would be natural selection. At all times throughout the world tribes have supplanted other tribes and as morality is one

and increase.

It is, however, very difficult to form any judgment why one particular tribe and not another has been successful and has risen to the scale of civilisation. Many savages are the same colour as the first discovered, so the theories of Mr. Bagby have been well worth looking at the progress as

Greedy and pre-eminently by Mr. Wallace and Mr. G. M. of my remarks are taken from the three articles. With such, the weak body-mind are soon humiliated and those that commonly exhibit a generous character. We concluded, on the other

Henry Maine has shown a part of the desert it is civilisation should be improved. Progress seems to depend on many concurrent favourable conditions, far too complex to be fully understood. But it has often been remarked that cool climates lead to dusty and that the climate has been highly favourable. The Esquimaux pressed by hard necessities succeeded many things. The climate has been too severe for the cold provinces. The mad habits, the wide plains, through the deserts, the forests, the tropics, all the life of the sea, the case being highly different. The white observing the barbarous inhabitants of the different tribes in the

It is probable result, as I have shown, is from some accident as the seeds of fruit trees falling in places, and producing an entirely different problem. The first advance of savages and civilisation present in the too difficult to be solved.

Not of the least as of the Civilized Nations. It is the only consideration that is from some human condition that the different modes of savages. But some remark that the different races select civilised nations may be worth adding. This it has been ably discussed by Mr. W. R.

(Ancient La 1861 p. 22. For Mr. Bagby's remarks, *Fortnightly Review* April 1 1863, p. 42.

The evolution of the male and female under Darwin's selection, *id.* p. 302.

Law and the medical men exert it in the skill to save the life of every one to the last moment. The reason to believe that vaccination has preserved thousands, who from the contagion would formerly have

perhaps will soon want of care or are weakly selected leads to the degeneration of

was required as part of the social instincts, but because they are derived in the manner previously indicated in the mind and in the widely different races would check the progress of the human progress, with the different parts of the nature. The savage man himself whilst performing his duties, he knows that he is acting for the good of his people but few of them naturally neglect the weak and helpless. The collection of the accounts of the different nations sent to the various branches of the unduly bad effects of the weak, the rising and the progress of the kind but the appearance to be the last of the check in the advance namely that the weak and inferior

Faust. *Magazine* Sept. 1863, p. 303. This article seems to have been very personal, and has given rise to the remark by the editor, J. D.

Mr. E. H. Layton has compared the progress of the human race. See *Magazine* July 13 1867. I have borrowed ideas from several of these articles. Mr. Wallace see *Anthropological Review* as before (ed. Mr. Galt). Macmillan's *Magazine* Aug. 1865 p. 318 also has great weight. *Hereditary* Genes 1870.

members of society do not marry so freely as the sound and thus check might be indefinitely increased by the weak in body or mind refraining from marriage though this is more to be hoped for than expected

In every country in which a large standing army is kept up the finest young men are taken by the conscription or are enlisted. They are thus exposed to early death during war are often tempted into vice and are prevented from marrying during the prime of life. On the other hand the shorter and feebler men with poor constitutions are left at home and consequently have a much better chance of marrying and propagating their kind.¹

Man accumulates property and bequeaths it to his children so that the children of the rich have an advantage over the poor in the race for success independently of bodily or mental superiority. On the other hand the children of parents who are short lived and are therefore on an average deficient in health and vigour come into their property sooner than other children and will be likely to marry earlier and leave a larger number of offspring to inherit their inferior constitutions. But the inheritance of property by itself is very far from an evil for without the accumulation of capital the arts could not progress and it is chiefly through their power that the civilised races have extended

the rate of accumulation of wealth interfere with the process of selection. When a poor man becomes moderately rich his children enter trades or professions in which there is struggle enough so that the able in body and mind succeed best. The presence of a body of well instructed men who have not to labour for their daily bread is important to a degree which cannot be overestimated as all high intellectual work is carried on by them and on such work material progress of all kinds mainly depends not to mention other and higher

men ever to some degree of elimination here occurs for we daily see rich men who happen to be fools or profligate squandering away their wealth.

Inmogeniture with entailed estates is a more direct evil though it may formerly have

been a great advantage by the creation of a dominant class and any government is better than none. Most eldest sons, though they may be weak in body or mind marry whilst the younger son however superior in these respects do not so generally marry. Nor can worthless eldest sons with entailed estates squander their wealth. But here, as elsewhere the relations of civilised life are so complex that some counter

active in mind. The evil consequences, such as they may be of the contrary

effect by marrying heirs. But the daughters of parents who have produced single children are themselves as Mr Galton² has shown apt to be sterile and thus noble families are continually cut off in the direct line and their wealth flows into some side channel but unfortunately this channel is not determined by superiority of any kind.

Although civilisation thus checks in many ways the action of natural selection it apparently favours the better development of the body by means of good food and the freedom

They appear also to have equal powers of endurance as has been proved in many adventurous expeditions. Even the great luxury of the rich can be but little detrimental for the expectation of life of our aristocracy at all ages and of both sexes is very little inferior to that of healthy English lives in the lower classes.

We will now look to the intellectual faculties. If in each grade of society the men were divided into two equal bodies, the one including the intellectually superior and the other the inferior there can be little doubt that the former would succeed better in all occupations and rear a greater number of children. Even in the lowest walk of life kill and at

¹ Herd and G. 18 0 pp 132 140

² See the first and sixth columns compiled from

the best comparative longevity table 18 0 p 115

¹ Prof H F L (E. J. L. der N. t. r. n. a. s. c. h. a. f. t. f. d. a. s. P. e. c. h. t. Jun 18 2) has some good remarks on this head and on the such points.

ty must be of some advantage though many occupations, wing to the great number of labor very small. Hence civilized nations there will be some tendency to an increase both in the number and in the standard of the intellectual ability. But I do not wish to assert that this tendency may not be more than counterbalanced in the ways, as by the multiplication of the reckless and improvident into chastise but must be so

for
has
their great intellect. Mr Galton says, I regret I am unable to solve the simple question whether and how far in man and woman who are producers of genius are inferior to the high women that in the future are by means so. Great ladies, therefore, find it difficult to be free to religious, great philosophers and discoverers in science, and the professional kind far largely disagree by their works than by language upon the progress. In the

individuals, and the presence of not only the marked and rare anomalies, the standard of the advancement of a people. So it will be with the intellectual faculties, since the same which the ability in achieving of society exceed the better than the less able, and consequently increase the number of the three superior talents. When an individual is dard of intellect and the number of intellectual men has increased we may expect from the law of the distribution from an age, that the progress of genius will as shown by Mr Galton, appear somewhat more frequently than before.

I refer to the moral qualities, some human nature of the disposition is always present. The most civilized nations. Malfact are created imprisoned for long periods, so that they are freely transported to the bad after. Melanelli and in some persons a confessed commitment would be to the moral reformation of the community. The result will be to follow an ideal occupation—and the result of barbarism is great to the civilization—emigrating to the less settled countries, where they

productive of the intellectual improvement of the individual. The expectation of life of the temperate the age of thirty for instance is 138 as whilst the usual labor of England the same is 40.9 years. Profligate men bear few children, and profligate men rarely marry. Both from disease. In the breeding of domestic animals, the limitation of those diseases, the high few number which are many married men inferior to the unmarried men in the world success. This especially holds good with the virtuous character which tend to reappear through generations, has blackness in sheep and with mankind in the world positions, which occa-

— seems indeed recognized in the common expression that the men resemble black sheep of the family.

With the used to, as far as an advanced standard of morality and an increased number of fairly good men are concerned natural selection apparently selects but little the high intellectual social instincts were originally the gained. But I have already said that,

— example and matter—reason—experience and self-interest—instruction during youth, and religious feelings.

A most important biological civilized countries to an increase in the number of men of a superior class has been largely neglected by Mr Greg and Mr Galton. Namely the fact that the young and reckless, who are often degraded by vice almost invariably marry, whilst the careful and faithful who are generally the more virtuous, marry late in life so that they may be able to support themselves and their children comfortably. These who marry early produce within a period not a large number of generations, but,

E. Ray has best compared the longevity of the population of the United States with that of the United Kingdom. I regard the progress of the influence of marriage on the vitality of the population for the promotion of social science. I refer to the *Macmillan Magazine* Sept. 1863, p. 353. *Macmillan Magazine* Aug. 1865, p. 318. The Rev F W Farrer in the *Macmillan Magazine* Aug. 1865, p. 264 takes different views.

Hereditary Genius, 1869, p. 330.

Origin of Species, this edition, p. 42.

Hereditary Genius, 1869, p. 317.

with a lessened chance of marriage. There is an extraordinary circumstance which seems to support Dr Stark's conclusion namely that the deaths and widows in France suffer in comparison with the married. The birth rate is mortal but the death rate is high. The death rate is high in the disordered family and the general one of the whole we may conclude that Dr Farr has the lesser mortality of married than of unmarried men, which seems to be the case. The mortality of the constant inmates of imperfect types, and to the selfish selection of the finest individuals of each race, the selection of the best individuals of the race, and acting on all corporeal faculties, and mental qualities. We may therefore infer that so good and good men will be produced and remain a true unmarried do not suffer high rate of mortality.

If the various checks specified in the two paragraphs, and perhaps others as yet un-

known, so often made with respect to corporeal structures that there is some reason to tend towards continued development in mind and body. But the development of all kinds depend on many concurrent factors. Circumstances. Natural selection on act only to the extent of the duals and races may have acquired certain indispensable advantages, and yet have perished from failure in their character. The Greeks may have retrograded from want of coherence between the many small talents, from the small size of the whole country from the practice of the extreme sensuality for they did not succumb until they were corrupted and corrupt to the very core. The western nations of Europe are more than able to surpass the former

Western nations.

We can positively say why the Spanish nation, so diminished in time, has been distanced in the race. The advantage of the nations of Europe from the dark ages is a tillable repeating problem. At the early period as Mr Galt has remarked almost all the men of genius in the world were given to meditation and with the mind had no reference except in the bosom of a Church which demanded celibacy and they could hardly fail to have had a deterioration in achievement. Success in nations during the same period. The intellectual selected with extreme are the free and bold talents in order to be imprisoned in them. In Spain also some of the best men were selected and the progress was limited during three centuries at the time of the fifteenth century. The intellectual Church has thus selected unequal talents, perhaps to large extent the worst in the world, Europe has progressed in parallel.

The remarkable success of the English as colonists, compared to the European na-

class of men, the nation will retrograde as has too often occurred in the history of the world. We must remember that progress is an absolute. It is very difficult to say why civilized nations rise, become more powerful, and spread more widely than others. The same thing progresses more quickly in time than in space. We may say that it depends on an increase in the actual number of the population, the number of the world with high intellect and material force, as well as the standard of intelligence. Corporeal truth reappears to be a little less except so far as the growth of body leads to our mind.

It has been generally admitted that the high intellect of power are a disadvantage to the nation. The Greeks, however, gradually selected intellect than any race that has existed. The high intellect of natural selection is real, the rise still higher the selection increased in number and stocked the land of Europe. The western nations tacitly as-

Dr Denham's remarks (*Frugality Fertility* de., p. 554) on this subject. At every stage the healthy and beautiful go on from the unmarried while the married, leaving the married columns dead, the sickly and unfortunate. The generous and original assume this. See Dr Galton, *Hereditary Genius*, pp. 546-547.

tions has been ascribed to their daring and persistent energy—a result which is well illustrated by comparing the progress of the Canadians of English and French extraction but who can say how the English gained their energy? There is apparently much truth in the belief that the wonderful progress of the United States as well as the character of the people are the results of natural selection for the more energetic, restless and courageous men from all parts of Europe have emigrated during the last ten or twelve generations to that great country and have there succeeded best.²⁹ Looking to the distant future I do not think that the Rev. Mr. Zincke takes an exaggerated view when he says³⁰ All other series of events—as that which resulted in the culture of mind in Greece and that which resulted in the empire of Rome—only appear to have purpose and value when viewed in connection with or rather as subsidiary to the great stream of Anglo-Saxon emigration to the west. Obscure as is the problem of the advance of civilisation we can at least see that a nation which produced during a lengthened period the greatest number of highly intellectual, energetic, brave, patriotic and benevolent men would generally sail over less

mals there has always been sufficient variability in their intellectual and moral faculties for a steady advance through natural selection. No doubt such advance demands many favourable concurrent circumstances but it as well be doubted whether the most favourable would have sufficed had not the rate of increase been rapid, and the co-

4. that a people which may be called civilised such as the Spanish settlers, liable to become indolent and to retrograde when the conditions of life are very easy. With the highly civilised nations continued progress depends in a subordinate degree on natural election for such nations do not supplant and exterminate one another as do savage tribes. Nevertheless the more intelligent members within the same community will succeed better in the long run than the inferior and leave a more numerous progeny and thus is a form of natural election. The more efficient causes of

... a certain men embodied in the laws customs and traditions of the nation and enforce it by public opinion. It should always be borne in mind that it is

the struggle
paid rate of in
crease It is impossible not to regret bitterly
but whether wisely is another question the
rate at which man tends to increase for this
leads in barbarous tribes to infanticide and
many other evils and in civilised nations to
abject poverty celibacy and to the late mar-
riages of the prudent But as man suffers from
the same physical evils as the lower animal
he has no right to expect an immunity from
the evils consequent on the struggle for exist-
ence Had he not been subjected during pre-
historic times to natural selection assuredly he
would never have attained to his present rank
Since we see in many parts of the world enor-
mous areas of the most fertile soil lying waste

but at the struggle for existence has not been sufficiently clear to free man upwards to his highest standard judging from all that we know of man and the lower ani-

Mr G l n M c m l l n s M g A g t
186 p 3 See also Vol O D
N t o n I I f Dec. 1869 p 151
Last Winter n th U n i d S t t 1868 p 29

as a thus appreciation is founded on sympathy which it can hardly be doubted was originally developed through natural selection as one of the most important elements of the social instincts.²

On the evidence that all civilised nations are
on a barbarous — the present subject has been
treated in so full and admirable a manner by
Sir J Lubbock & Mr Taylor Mr Milner
and others that I need here give only the
brief summary of their results. The argu-
ments recently advanced by the Duke of
Aberdeen and Lord Althorpe White
in favour of the belief that man cannot be
civilised as a civilisation and that all savages
have no understanding or gratitude seem to
be weak in comparison with those advanced on

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t f b l o p l o c f y N z b b g 7
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originally in n gam us Th primiti eidea of
j w nly th l w of battl and other

litt h ad I ha m t with n eviq nce.
F gians w re probably compelled by th
co q ern b rd to settl th inh p ta
ble country and th m y h e becom in
conseq ence som wh t m re d graded b t it
ld be difficult t pro th t th y ha
fale much bel w th Botocudos, who inhab t
th fin st parts f Braz l.

Th rd nce th t all ci lised n ti ns are
th de cendants f barbarians, consists, n th
one ide, of cl ar trace f th ir f rm l w
cond ti still-exist g customs, beliefs,
language, &c. and th th sid f proof
that sa ges are i d pe dentl abl t raise
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tion, and ha act all thus risen. Th e
d nce the first h ad trem l cur s,
b t cannot be h reg n I ref to ch cases
as t of th art of num rat n, which, as
M Ty l clearl sh w b ref re ct th
word fill used in som places, rgi ted in
counting th fi g rs, first f hand and then
of th th and la t f th toes. We h
traces f this in w decimal st m and
in ti Roman num als, wh re, aft th V
wh h is supposed to be an abbrev ted p ctur e
of human hand w pass n to VI, &c., wh n
the ther hand d bt was used. So gain,

When w peak f three score and t n, w are
counting by th gesimal t m. ach score
thus leally mad tand g f 20—f
man as M xican Carib w ld p t t.
According to lar and reas g school of
philologists, ry languag bears th marks of
ts low and grad al l t n. So t with th
art of writ g, f l t t rs are rudim ts of p
torial representati ns. It is hardl possibl t
read M M Lennan w l⁴ and t admit
that alm t all lived nat ns still retain
trace of uch rud hab ts as th f reibl cap-
t re of w s. What ancient nat n, as th
saim th or asks, can be named that was

bel fs. The hught f rm of reig n—
grand d of God hating sin and l ving
righteo sn ss—was unkn wn during prime al
tim s.

T m g t the the kind of evidence Sir J
L bbock has shewn that som sa a s h
recently mpro ed littl in som of th r
simpl r arts. From the tremelv un us c
count which h g f the w apons, tools, and
arts, in seam ng tsa age n an u parts f
th w ld t ca n t be doubted that th se
have n arly all been i d pendent disco n s,
cept pe h psth art f maki fire.* Th
Au tralian boome an s good istance f one
such d pend nt disco ry The Tahit ans
when fi t visited had ad anced n man re
pects be nd th nh b tants of m t f the
th P l nesian islands. Th re are n ju t
ground f th bel f that th hugh cult re of
th n ti P ruvians and M xicans was de-
ri ed from abroad— many nat e plant w re
th re cultv ted, and f w n ti animals do-
mest cated W sh uld bear in mi d that,
judging from th small ntl ce f m t mis
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civilised land if washed t th sh res f Am
ca, wo ld not b produced anv marked
flect on the nat res, unless th y had already

nhab tants retai no trad t n Th re also
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Chu ese and anci t J ws. H ce th re can
hardl be d bt th t th nhab tant of these
co tri s, which includ arly th wh l
ci lised w ld w re nce in a barbaro con

Rev I Institution f Gr at Bristol, March 15,
1867 Also F searche nto the Early History f

the (Lam,) term of Hira joushp. Proc Amer
we trad of Science ch n. f b 1868. I ref
whadha re (Arch eology Review Oct., 1869 p.
573 renas ha the col ges d h ma sacrifices
found both Homer nd the Old Testam t.

*Sir J Lubbock, *Pr historie T me* 2 d ed.,
1869 haps. od 7. d passim See also th ex
celle t 9th hapt Tylo *Early History f Man*
kind, 2 d ed., 15 a

D f Muller has mad som good remarks to
this flect th *Reis der Voeer Antropolog*
Theil, Abtheil m., 1868, s. 127

dition To believe that man was aboriginally civilised and then suffered utter degradation in so many regions is to take a pitifully low view of human nature It is apparently a truer and more cheerful view that progress has been

much more general than retrogression that man has risen though by slow and interrupted steps from a lowly condition to the highest standard as yet attained by him in knowledge morals and religion

CHAPTER VI

ON THE AFFINITIES AND GENEALOGY OF MAN

Even if it be granted that the difference between man and his nearest allies as given in corporeal structure as some naturalists maintain, and although we must grant that the difference between them is minimum in mental powers, yet the fact given in the earlier chapters appears to declare, in the plainest manner, that man is descended from some lower form, notwithstanding that connecting links have not hitherto been discovered.

Man is liable to numerous slight, and diversified variations, which are caused by the same general causes, are governed and transmitted in accordance with the same general laws, as the low animals. Man has multiplied so rapidly that he has necessarily been exposed to struggle for existence, and consequently to natural selection. He has given rise to many races, some of which differ so much from each other that they have often been ranked by naturalists as distinct species. His body is constructed the same as the logical plan as that of the mammals. He passes through the same phases of embryological development. He retains many rudimentary and useless structures, which undoubtedly were once serviceable. Characters occasionally make their re-appearance in him, which have had reason to believe were possessed by his early progenitors. If the origin of man had been wholly referred from that of all the animals, these appearances would be mere important deceptions but such an admission is incredible. These appearances, therefore, have an intelligible, at least a large, if not a full, man is the co-descendant with other mammals of some unknown and lower form.

Some naturalists, from being deeply impressed with the mental and physical powers of man, have divided the whole genus into three kingdoms, the Human, the Animal, and the Vegetable, giving to man separate kingdom, physical powers cannot be compared or classed by the naturalist but he must endow it with what he has decided that the mental faculties of man and the lower animals

do not differ in kind although immensely in degree. A difference in degree however great, does not justify us in placing man in a distinct kingdom as will perhaps be best illustrated by comparing the mental powers of two insects, namely a cocoon or scale insect and an ant, which undoubtedly belong to the same class. The difference is but greater than the difference of a somewhat different kind from that between man and the highest mammal. The female cocoon, whilst young, attaches itself by its proboscis to a plant such as the sap, but numerous eggs again suffused with eggs and thus with history. On the other hand to describe the habits and mental powers of wasps, ants, would require as Perre H. be has shown, large volumes. I may however briefly specify few points. An ant certainly communicates information to each other and social unit for the same work, for games of play. They recognize their fellow-wants after months of absence and feel sympathy for each other. They build great edifices, keep them clean, close the doors in the evening, and protect sentries. They make roads as well as tunnels and rivers, and temporary bridges over them, by clinging together. They collect food for the community and when an object, too large for entrance is brought to the nest, they enlarge the door and afterwards build it up again. They store up seeds, of which they prevent the germination and which if damp are brought to the surface to dry. They keep poultry and other insects as milch-cows. They go to battle in regular bands, and freely sacrifice their lives for the community. They migrate according to a preconcerted plan. They capture slaves. They make the eggs of their aphides, as well as their wasps and cocoons, to warm parts of the nest, and that they may be quickly hatched, and no less similar facts could be given. On the whole the difference in mental powers between an ant and cocoon is minimum, but man has very

Some of the most interesting facts ever published the habit of ants are given by Mr. Belt, in his *Tales of the Ants*, 1874. See also M. M. Girard's admirable work, *Les fourmis*, 1873, also L. Instinct chez les insectes, by M. George Peuchet, *Revue des Deux Mondes*, Feb., 1870, p. 662.

I follow Geoffrey St. Hilaire's very detailed account of the position assigned to man by various naturalists, their classifications. *Hist. Nat. Gén. tom. ii.*, 1858, pp. 170-182.

dreamed of placing these insects in distinct classes much less in distinct kingdoms No doubt the difference is bridged over by other insects and this is not the case with man and the higher apes But we have every reason to believe that the breaks in the series are simply the results of many forms having become extinct

Professor Owen relying chiefly on the structure of the brain has divided the mammalian series into four sub classes One of these he devotes to man in another he places both the marsupials and the Monotremata so that he makes man as distinct from all other mammals as are these two latter groups conjoined This view has not been accepted as far as I am aware by any naturalist capable of forming an independent judgment and therefore need not here be further considered

We can understand why a classification founded on any single character or organ—even an organ so wonderfully complex and important as the brain—or on the high development of the mental faculties is almost sure to prove unsatisfactory This principle has indeed been tried with hymenopterous insects but when thus classed by their habits or instincts the arrangement proved thoroughly artificial² Classifications may of course be based on any character whatever as on size colour or the element inhabited but naturalists have long felt a profound conviction that there is a natural system This system it is now generally admitted must be as far as possible genealogical in arrangement—that is the co descendants of the same form must be kept together in one group apart from the co descendants of any other form but if the parent forms are related so will be their descendants and the two groups together will form a larger group The amount of difference between the several groups—that is the amount of modification which each has undergone—is expressed by such terms as genera families orders and classes As we have no record of the lines of descent the pedigree can be discovered only by observing the degrees of resemblance between the beings which are to be classed For this object numerous points of resemblance are of much more importance than the amount of similarity or dissimilarity in a few points If two languages were found to resemble each other in a multitude of words and points of construction they would be uni-

versally recognised as having sprung from a common source notwithstanding that they differed greatly in some few words or points of construction But with organic beings the points of resemblance must not consist of adaptations to similar habits of life two animals may for instance have had their whole frames modified for living in the water and yet they will not be brought any nearer to each other in the natural system Hence we can see how it is that resemblances in several unimportant structure in useless and rudimentary organs or not now functionally active or in an embryological condition are by far the most serviceable for classification for they can hardly be due to adaptations within a late period and thus they reveal the old lines of descent or of true affinity

We can further see why a great amount of modification in some one character ought not to lead us to separate widely any two organisms A part which already differs much from the same part in other allied forms has already according to the theory of evolution varied much consequently it would (as long as the organism remained exposed to the same exciting conditions) be liable to further variations of the same kind and these if beneficial would be preserved and thus be continually augmented In many cases the continued development of a part for instance of the beak of a bird or of the teeth of a mammal would not aid the species in gaining its food or for any other object but with man we can see no definite limit to the continued development of the brain and mental faculties as far as advantage is concerned Therefore in determining the position of man in the natural or genealogical system the extreme development of his brain ought not to outweigh a multitude of resemblances in other less important or quite unimportant points

The greater number of naturalists who have taken into consideration the whole structure of man including his mental faculties have followed Blumenbach and Cuvier and have placed man in a separate Order under the title of the Bimana and therefore on an equality with the orders of the Quadrumana Carnivora &c Recently many of our best naturalists have recurred to the view first propounded by Linnaeus so remarkable for his sagacity and have placed man in the same Order with the Quadrumana under the title of the Primates The justice of this conclusion will be admitted for in the first place we must bear

² Westwood *Modern Classification of Insects* vol. II. 1840 p 87

in mind the comparative insignificance of the great development of the brain in man, and that the trogl marked differences between the skulls of man and the *Quadrumanus* (later insisted upon by Bischoff and others) appear to flow from the differently developed brains. In the second place we must remember that nearly all the other and more important differences between man and the *Quadrumanus* are manifest in the nature and relative

relationship of our features is manifestly the same and the various movements of the muscle and skin, the eyebrows and round the mouth. Some few expressions of the same as in the weeping

OF SEALS

importance of the characteristics of classification. These animals differ from all the Carnivora in the form of the bodies and the structure of the limbs, far more than does man from the highest species in most systems, from that of the most recent. The Walrus seals are ranked as members of the Order of the Carnivora. If man had the hind limbs, he would have the gift of swimming, a separate and his own receipt.

It would be beyond the limits, and quite beyond the knowledge of the names of the numerous points of structure in which man agrees with the other primates. Our great anatomist and philosopher Prof Huxley has fully discussed this subject, and concluded that man in all parts of his organization differs less from the highest species, than these differ from the lowest members of the same group. Consequently there is no justification of placing man in a distinct order.

In an earlier part of this work I brought forward some facts, which show how I feel man agree in constitution with the high mammals and this agreement must depend upon some simultaneous structure and in the local composition. I give as instances, the habits of the same diseases, and the habits of all the parasites, our tastes in common for the same stimulants, and the similar effects produced by them, as well as by our drugs, and other such facts.

As small important points of resemblance between man and the *Quadrumanus* are not commonly noticed in the same works, and as, be it ever so numerous, the nearly real relationship, I will present a few such points. The

and in the ears are curious alike. In man the nose is much more prominent than in most monkeys but we may trace the common element of an equine curvature in the nose of the Hoolock gibbon and the in the *Semnopithecus nasica* carried to a ridiculous extreme.

The faces of many monkeys are ornamented with beards, whiskers, or moustaches. The hair on the head grows to a great length in some species of *Semnopithecus* and in the baboon (*Macacus radatus*) the radiating

appearance but the thick hair on the head of the bonnet monkey terminates downwards abruptly and is succeeded by hair so short and fine that a little distance from the head with the exception of the eyebrows, appears quite naked. It has been erroneously asserted that the eyebrows are not present in any monkey. In the present named the absence of nakedness of the forehead is different from the nakedness of the forehead of the baboon and Eschscholtz states that in our children the limit between the hairy scalp and the naked forehead some times will be defined so that the forehead seems to have a trifling case of recession to protrude in which the forehead had not as it becomes quite naked.

It is well known that the hair on our arms extends from the elbow and below to a point at the elbow. This curious arrangement is so unlike that in most of the mammals, is common to the gorilla, chimpanzee, orang, some species of Hylobates, and even to some of the African monkeys. But in *Hylobates* the hair on the forearm directed downwards towards the wrist in the ordinary manner and in *Hylobates* the hair, as though a very slight forward inclination so that in this latter species it is in a transitional state. It can hardly

Proceedings, Zoological Society, 1863, p. 4.
Evidence as to Man's place in Nature, 1863, p. 40.
d. p. 22.

Isidore Geoffroy St Hilaire *Hist. Nat. G.*, tom. ii., 1839, p. 21.

Über die Richtung der Haare, &c., Müller *Archiv für Anat. u. Phys.* 1832, p. 51.

ly be doubted that with most mammals the thickness of the hair on the back and its direction is adapted to throw off the rain even the transverse hairs on the fore legs of a dog may serve for this end when he is coiled up asleep Mr Wallace who has carefully studied the habits of the orang remarks that the convergence of the hair towards the elbow on the arms of the orang may be explained as serving to throw off the rain for this animal during rainy weather sits with its arms bent, and with the hands clasped round a branch or over its

seems probable the direction of the hair on our own arms offers a curious record of our former state for no one supposes that it is now of any use in throwing off the rain nor in our present erect condition is it properly directed for this purpose

It would however be rash to trust too much to the principle of adaptation in regard to the direction of the hair in man or his early progenitors for it is impossible to study the figures given by Schricht of the arrangement of the hair on the human fœtus (this being the same as in the adult) and I not agree with this excellent observer that other and more complex causes have intervened The points of convergence seem to stand in some relation to those points in the embryo which are last closed in during development There appears also to exist some relation between the arrangement of the hair on the limbs and the course of the medullary arteries*

It must not be supposed that the resemblances between man and certain apes in the above and in many other points—such as in having a naked forehead long tresses on the head &c—are all necessarily the result of unbroken inheritance from a common progenitor or of subsequent reversion Many of these resemblances are more probably due to analogous variation which follows as I have elsewhere attempted to show from co-descended

*Quoted by R. D. *African Sketch Book* v. l. i. 1873 p. 152

organisms having a similar constitution and having been acted on by like causes inducing similar modifications With respect to the similar direction of the hair on the fore arms of man and certain monkeys as this character is common to almost all the anthropomorphous apes it may probably be attributed to inheritance but this is not certain as some very distinct American monkeys are thus characterized

Although as we have now seen man has no just right to form a separate Order for his own reception he may perhaps claim a distinct sub order or family Irof Huxley in his last work¹¹ divides the primates into three sub-orders

alone the

in the air

L

genera of lemurs As far as differences in certain important points of structure are concerned man may no doubt rightly claim the rank of a sub order and thus rank is too low if we look chiefly to his mental faculties Nevertheless from a genealogical point of view it appears that this rank is too high and that man ought to form merely a family or possibly even only a sub family If we imagine three lines of descent proceeding from a common stock it is quite conceivable that two of them might after the lapse of ages be so slightly changed as still to remain as species of the same genus whilst the third line might become so greatly modified as to deserve to rank as a distinct sub family or even Order But in this case it is almost certain that the third line would still retain through inheritance numerous small points of resemblance with the other two Here then would occur the difficulty at present insoluble how much weight we ought to assign in our classifications to strongly marked differences in some few points—that is to the amount of modification undergone and how much to close resemblance in numerous unimportant points as in tracing the lines of descent or genealogy To attach much weight to the few but strong differences is the most obvious and perhaps the safest course though it appears more correct to pay great attention to the many small resemblance as giving a truly natural classification

In forming a judgment on this head with reference to man we must glance at the classification of the Simiade This family is divided by almost all naturalists into the catarrhine

In the induction to the Class of two of A male

1869 p. 99

ON THE AFFINITIES AND GENEALOGY OF MAN

CHAP. VI

gro p, or Old W l d m nkeys, all of which are characterised (as the name implies) by the peculiar structure of the no trils, and by the presence of premolars in each jaw and into the platy l gro p. N w W l d m nkey (including every distinct b g p) all of which are characterised by differently constructed trils, and by the presence of premolars in each jaw. Some of the most difficult to distinguish

mann : which the other and higher groups were included together. If the anthropomorphes be admitted to form a natural b-group then some of the most difficult to distinguish

the first so-called member of the anthropomorphous subgroup of the man. It is not probable that the group of the anthropomorphes, in the form of the other lower b-group of the group of the man, is a man-like creature resembling the higher anthropomorphous group in so many respects. And this comparison with most of his

few of the chimpanzee is apparently an adaptation to the free gait, all probability that some New World species should have been very varied and produced a man-like creature with all the distinct characters of the Old World. The loss of the same time is not to be lost sight of. The sequence is hardly

the first, but several exceptions from the first

Experiments show that the principal feature of the human and the two main divisions of the Simiadae namely the catarrh and platylophous, with their b-groups, have proceeded from some common ancestor. The early d

the catarrh division.

The anthropomorphous species, namely the gibbon, chimpanzee, orang and Hylobates, are by their natural separation from the Old World monkeys, as a distinct b-group. I am aware that G. L. S. Lygon has truly referred to the b-group, does not admit the existence of the b-group and not but a brook. The orang, as Mr. St. G. M. art remarks, is the most peculiar and aberrant form to be found in the Old World. The remaining anthropomorphous Old World monkeys, are again divided by some naturalistic into three small b-groups. The Simiinae, with its peculiar associated mach being the type of the b-group. But it appears from Mr. Gaudry's description of the Simiinae, that the first of the Mace period from which the whole collected Simiinae and Macacus and the probably distinct the

group of the b-group of the species principally in the world has already begun to indicate by the distinctive characters the future distinct marks of the catarrh and platylophous divisions. If the members of the proposed ancient group of the Old World have been so uniform in their distinctness, their structure of the human, as at the first of the catarrh in the new world and the platylophous in the world, b t w l d h resembled in the respect the allied Lemnidae which differ greatly from each other in the form of the muzzle, and to an extraordinary degree in the rudimentary. The catarrh and platylophous monkeys agree in the distinctive characters, as shown by the unquestionably belonging to the same Order. The many characters which they possess common to hardly be independent of each other, so many distinct peculiarities so that these characters must have

I have there the latter groups as distinct from the former. Mr. M. art still holds by the same view. See Vol. 1871 p. 41. I have also, Zool. Soc., vol. 2, 1867 p. 214

Mr. St. G. M. art, Transactions of the Philosophical Society 1867 p. 410. Messrs. M. art and M. art, the Lemnidae, Transactions of the Zoological Society, vol. 2, 1869 p. 3

been inherited. But a naturalist would undoubtedly have ranked as an ape or a monkey an ancient form which possessed many characters common to the catarrhine and platyrrhine monkeys: other characters in an intermediate condition, and some few perhaps distinct from those now found in either group. And as man from a genealogical point of view belongs to the catarrhine or Old World stock, we must conclude, however much the conclusion may revolt our pride, that our early progenitors would have been properly thus designated.¹⁶ But we must not fall into the error of supposing that the early progenitors of the whole simian stock, including man, was identical with, or even closely resembled, any existing ape or monkey.

On the Birthplace and Antiquity of Man.—We are naturally led to enquire, where was the birthplace of man at that stage of descent when our progenitors diverged from the catarrhine stock? The fact that they belonged to this stock clearly shews that they inhabited the Old World, but not Australia nor any oceanic island, as we may infer from the laws of geographical distribution. In each great region of the world the living mammals are closely related to the extinct species of the same region. It is therefore probable that Africa was formerly inhabited by extinct apes closely allied to the gorilla and chimpanzee, and as these two species are now man's nearest allies, it is somewhat more probable that our early progenitors lived on the African continent than elsewhere. But it is useless to speculate on this subject for two or three anthropomorphous apes, one the *Dryopithecus* of Lartet nearly as large as a man, and closely allied to *Hyllobates*, existed in Europe during the Miocene age, and since so remote a period the earth has certainly undergone many great revolutions, and there has been ample time for migration on the largest scale.

At the period and place whenever and wherever it was, when man first lost his hairy covering, he probably inhabited a hot country, a circumstance favourable for the frugi-

ferous diet on which, judging from analogy, he subsisted. We are far from knowing how long ago it was when man first diverged from the catarrhine stock, but it may have been

as early as the Miocene

may be modified under favourable circumstances, we know, however, that some have retained the same form for

at all some a little, and some greatly changed, all within the same period. Thus it may have been with man, who has undergone a great amount of modification in certain characters in comparison with the higher apes.

The great break in the organic chain between man and his nearest allies, which cannot be bridged over by any extinct form.

appear of much weight to those who from general reasons believe in the general principle of evolution. Breaks often occur in all parts of the series, some being well sharp and defined, others less so, in various degrees, as between the orang and its nearest allies—between the Tarsius and the other Lemnidae—between the elephant and in a more striking manner between the *Ornithorynchus* and *Ec hidna*, and all other mammals. But these breaks depend merely on the number of related forms which have become extinct. At some future period, not very distant as measured by centuries, the civilised race of man will almost certainly exterminate and replace the savage races throughout the world. At the same time the anthropomorphous apes, as Professor Schaaffhausen has remarked,¹⁷ will no doubt be exterminated. The break between man and his nearest allies will then be wider for it will intervene between man in a more civilised state as we may hope, and than the Caucasian and some ape as low as a baboon, instead of as now between the negro of Australia and the gibbon.

With respect to the absence of fossil remains, serving to connect man with his ape-like progenitor, no one will lay much stress on this.
¹⁷ *Anthropological Review*, April, 1867, p. 236.

¹⁶ Dr. C. F. Smith, *Mémoires de la Société de Géologie de France*, t. xv, p. 18.

dinosaurians are in many important characters intermediate between certain reptiles and certain birds—the birds referred to being the ostrich tribe (itself a widely diffused remnant of a larger group) and the Archaeopteryx that strange secondary bird with a long lizard like tail. Again according to Prof. Owen² the ichthyosaurians—great sea lizards furnished with paddles—present many affinities with fishes or rather according to Huxley with amphibians a class which including in its highest division frogs and toads is distinct³

from annelids with other groups of organisms. The Lepidosiren is also so closely allied to amphibians and fishes that naturalists long disputed in which of these two classes to rank it and also some few ganoid fishes have been preserved from utter extinction by inhabiting rivers which are harbours of refuge and are related to the great waters of the ocean in the same way that islands are to continents.

Lastly one single member of the immense and diversified class of fishes namely the lancelet or amphioxus is so different from all other fishes that Haeckel maintains that it ought to form a distinct class in the vertebrate kingdom. This fish is remarkable for its negative characters: it can hardly be said to possess a brain, vertebral column or heart &c. so that it was classed by the older naturalists amongst the worms. Many years ago Prof. Goodsir perceived that the lancelet presented some affinities with the ascidians which are invertebrate hermaphrodite marine creatures permanently attached to a support. They hardly appear like animals and consist of a simple tough leathery sack with two small projecting orifices. They belong to the Mollusca of Huxley—a lower division of the great kingdom of the Mollusca but they have recently been placed by some naturalists amongst the Vermes or worms. Their larvae somewhat resemble tadpoles in shape⁴ and

have the power of swimming freely about. Mr. Kovalevsky⁵ has lately observed that the larvae of ascidians are related to the Verte-

brates. He has now carried these observations yet further and should his results be well established the whole will form a discovery of the very greatest value. Thus if we may rely on embryology ever the safest guide in classification it seems that we have at last gained a clue to the source whence the Vertebrata were derived.⁶ We should then be justified in believing that at an extremely remote period a group of animals existed resembling in many respects the larvae of our present ascidians, which diverged into two great branches—the one retrograding in development and producing the present class of ascidians the other rising to the crown and summit of the animal kingdom by giving birth to the Vertebrata.

We have thus far endeavoured rudely to trace the genealogy of the Vertebrata by the aid of their mutual affinities. We will now look to man as he exists and we shall I think be able partially to restore the structure of our early progenitors during successive periods but not in due order of time. This can be ef-

fectly done by the aid of the principles of morphology and embryology. The various facts to which I shall here allude have been given in the previous chapters.

The early progenitors of man must have been once covered with hair both sexes having

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s f i t e a l i t e ."

because their ears were probably pointed, and capable of motion and their bodies were provided with a tail, bearing the proper muscles. Their limbs and bodies were also actuated by man muscles which now only occasionally remain but are now present in the *Quadrumanus*. At this or some earlier period the great artery and nerve of the humerus ran through a supra-condylar foramen. The intestine going forth much larger than the artery or vein than that now existing. The foot was the prehensile digit from the condition of the great toe of the fetus and of the primates, and did not, were arboreal in their habits, and frequented some warm, forest-clad land. The males had great canine teeth, which served them as formidable weapons. At a much earlier period the uterus was double, the excreta were voided through a cloaca and the young was protected by a third yelid, inclosing the membrane. At an earlier period the progonitors of man must have been quadrupeds, their habits of morphology plainly tell us that our lungs consist of modified windbladders which once served as float. The clavicles in the neck in the embryo of man show where the branchiae once existed. In the later weekly recurrent periods of some of our functions we appear to still retain traces of our primordial birthplace, where washed by the tides. At about this same early period the trunk and legs were replaced by the corpora liliata. The latter existed as simple pulsating vessels and the dorsal column took the place of a vertebral column. These early ancestors of man, thus seen in the dim recesses of time, must have been as simple or still more simple or simpler than the lancelet, amphioxus.

There is on this point deserving a full notice. It has long been known that in the vertebrate kingdom we bear rudiments of an accessory parts, pertaining to the reproductive system which properly belong to the plant sex and it has been ascertained that at very early embryonic period both sexes possess true male and female glands. In the lower realm of the vertebrate kingdom appears to have been hermaphrodite or androgynous.²² But here we

encounter singular difficulty. In the mammalian class the males possess rudiments of a uterus with the adjacent passage, in their vesicular prostatic the vessels also rudiments of mammae and some mammals have trace of a marsupial sack. Other analogous facts could be added. Are we then, to suppose that some tremulously ancient mammal continued androgynous, after it had acquired the chief distinctions of its class, and therefore after it had emerged from the lower classes of the vertebrate kingdom. This seems very improbable, for we have to look to fishes, the lowest of all the classes, to find any still existing androgynous forms.²³ That various accessory parts, proper to each sex, are found in a rudimentary condition in the opposite sex,

this form of transmission, — as in the case of the epura, plumes, and brilliant colours, acquired for battle or ornament by male birds, and inherited by the females in an imperfect or rudimentary condition.

The possession by male mammals of functionally imperfect mammary organs is, in some respects, peculiarly curious. The *Monotremata* have the proper milk-secreting glands with orifices, but no nipples and as these animals stand at the very base of the mammalian series, it is probable that the progenitors of the class also had milk-secreting glands, but no nipples. This conclusion is supported by what is known of the structure of the *lopin* and for Professor Turner of Munich on the authority of H. Lill and Lang, that in the embryonic mammary glands can be distinctly traced before the nipples are not fully established and the

amphidite. Similar view has long been held by some others, though until recently without firm basis.

²²The male *Thalassius* offers the best instance. On anatomy of *Thalassius*, Lill, p. 111.

Hermaphroditism has been observed several species of *Terranus*, as well as in some other fishes, here it is either normal or symmetrical, or abnormal or lateral. Dr. Zonitsee has given references to this, but more especially to paper by Prof. Halbertsma, in the *Transact. of the Dutch Acad. of Science*, vol. 1. D. Guérin doubts the fact, but it has now been recorded by too many good observers to be any longer disputed. Dr. M. Lessa writes me that he has verified the observation made by Cavolini. *Terranus*, Prof. Ercolani has recently shown (4 ed. *deus Venetia Biologica*, Dec. 23, 1871) that eels are androgynous.

²³The other class of Prof. Gegenbaur one of the latest authors who compares them see *Grundriss der vergleich. Anat.* 1870, p. 66. The result has been arrived at chiefly from the study of the *Amphioxus* but it appears from the researches of Wahlgren, quoted in *Journal of Anat. and Phys.*, 1866, p. 1611, that the sexual organs of even the lowest vertebrates are in their early condition, her-

development of successive parts in the individual generally represents and accords with the development of successive beings in the same line of descent. The marsupials differ from the Monotremata by possessing nipples so that probably these organs were first acquired by the marsupials after they had diverged from and risen above the Monotremata and were then transmitted to the placental mammals.²⁹ No one will suppose that the marsupials still remained androgynous after they had approximately acquired their present structure. How then are we to account for male mammals possessing mammae? It is possible that they were first developed in the females and then transferred to the males but from what follows this is hardly probable.

It may be suggested as another view that long after the progenitors of the whole mammalian class had ceased to be androgynous both sexes yielded milk and thus nourished their young and in the case of the marsupials that both sexes carried their young in marsupial sacks. This will not appear altogether improbable if we reflect that the males of existing syngnathous fishes receive the eggs of the females in their abdominal pouches hatch them and afterwards as some believe nourish the young³⁰—that certain other male fishes hatch the eggs within their mouths or branchial cavities—that certain male toads take the chaplets of eggs from the females and wind them round their own thighs keeping them there until the tadpoles are born—that certain male birds undertake the whole duty of incubation and that male pigeons as well as the females feed their nestlings with a secretion from their crops. But the above suggestion first occurred to me from mammary glands of male mammals being so much more perfectly developed than the rudiments of the

Prof. Gegenbaur has shown (*Jen. he. Zeit. s. h. ft. Bd. v. p. 212*) that the difference in type of nipples present throughout the series of mammals is not a result of the difference in the position of the nipples but that it is a result of the difference in the position of the nipples. See also a memoir by Dr. M. Huss, on the mammary gland (*bid. Bd. v. p. 16*).

Mr. Lockwood (*as quoted in Q. J. J. of Science April 1868 p. 269*) from which has been observed that the mammary gland is present in the wall of the body in the placental mammals.

other accessory reproductive parts, which are found in the one sex though proper to the other. The mammary glands and nipples, as they exist in male mammals can indeed hardly be called rudimentary: they are merely not fully developed and not functionally active. They are sympathetically affected under the influence of certain diseases like the same organs in the female. They often secrete a few drops of milk at birth and at puberty this latter fact occurred in the curious case before referred to where a young man possessed two pairs of mammae. In man and some other male mammals these organs have been known occasionally to become so well developed during maturity as to yield a fair supply of milk. Now if we suppose that during a former prolonged period male mammals aided the females in nursing their offspring³¹ and that afterwards from some cause (as from the production of a smaller number of young) the males ceased to give this assistance of the organs during maturity would lead to their becoming inactive and from two well known principles of inheritance this state of inactivity would probably be transmitted to the males at the corresponding age of maturity. But at an earlier age these organs would be left unaffected so that they would be almost equally well developed in the young of both sexes.

Conclusion—Von Baer has defined advancement or progress in the organic scale better than any one else as resting on the amount of differentiation and specialisation of the several parts of a being—when arrived at maturity as I should be inclined to add. Now as organisms have become slowly adapted to diversified lines of life by means of natural selection their parts will have become more and more differentiated and specialised for various functions from the advantage gained by the division of physiological labour. The same part appears often to have been modified first for one purpose and then long afterwards for some other and quite distinct purpose and thus all the parts are rendered more and more complex. But each organism still retains the

geological evidence that organisation on the whole has advanced throughout the world by slow and interrupted steps. In the great king

M. C. R. yer has suggested a similar view in his *Origine de l'homme* de 1890.

²⁹ See also *Anatomy and Physiology* Vol. I 1866 p. 8 Dr. Günther has likewise described similar cases.

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²²The habits of th seashore must be greatly
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CHAPTER VII

ON THE RACES OF MAN

It is not my intention here to describe the several so called races of men but I am about to enquire what is the value of the differences between them under a classificatory point of view and how they have originated. In determining whether two or more allied forms ought to be ranked as species or varieties naturalists are practically guided by the following considerations namely the amount of difference between them and whether such differences relate to few or many points of structure and whether they are of physiological importance but more especially whether they are constant. Constancy of character is what is chiefly valued and ought for by naturalists. Whenever it can be shewn or rendered probable that the forms in question have remained distinct for a long period this becomes an argument of much weight in favour of treating them as species. Even a slight degree of sterility between any two forms when first crossed or in their offspring is generally considered as a decisive test of their specific distinctness and their continued persistence without blending within the same area is usually accepted as sufficient evidence either of some degree of mutual sterility or in the case of animals of some mutual repugnance to pairing.

Independently of fusion from intercrossing the complete absence in a well investigated region of varieties linking together any two closely allied forms is probably the most important of all the criterions of their specific distinctness and this is a somewhat different consideration from mere constancy of character for two forms may be highly variable and yet not yield intermediate varieties. Geographical distribution is often brought into play unconsciously and sometimes consciously so that forms living in two widely separated areas in which most of the other inhabitants are specifically distinct are themselves usually looked at as distinct but in truth this affords no aid in distinguishing geographical races from so called good or true species.

Now let us apply these generally admitted principles to the races of man viewing him in the same spirit as a naturalist would any other animal. In regard to the amount of difference

between the races we must make some allowance for our nice powers of discrimination gained by the long habit of observing ourselves. In India as Elphinstone remarks, although a newly arrived European cannot at first distinguish the various native races yet they soon appear to him extremely dissimilar and the Hindoo cannot at first perceive any difference between the several European nations. Even the most distinct races of man are much more like each other in form than would at first be supposed certain negro tribes must be excepted whilst others as Dr Rohlf's writes

lection Anthropologique du Muséum de Paris of the men belonging to various races the greater number of which might pass for Europeans as many persons to whom I have shewn them have remarked. Nevertheless, these men if seen alive would undoubtedly appear very distinct so that we are clearly much influenced in our judgment by the mere colour of the skin and hair by slight differences in the features and by expression.

There is however no doubt that the various race when carefully compared and measured differ much from each other—as in the texture of the hair the relative proportions of all parts of the body the capacity of the lungs, the form and capacity of the skull and even in the convolutions of the brain. But it would be an endless task to specify the numerous points of difference. The races differ also in constitution in acclimatisation and in liability to certain diseases. Their mental characteristics

History of India 1841 v. 1. p. 323. Further passages in the same remark with respect to the C.

A vast number of men as yet of the white, black, and red races are not fully distinguished. The *Mutiny and Anthropological Statistics of America* Sold by B. A. Gould 1869 pp. 228-338. On the capacity of the lungs, p. 471. See also the *Universal and Biological* by Dr. W. B. Bailey, m. t. l. r. v. t. f. D. Scher, and Dr. Scherz in the *Revue d'Anthropologie Théorique* 1866.

See also the *Mr. Marsh's account of the* *Physical Traits of the Human Race* 1864 p. 19.

are likewise very distinct chiefly as it would appear in their mental, but partly in their intellectual faculties. Every one who has had the opportunity of comparison, must have been struck with the contrast between the taciturn, enormous, aboriginals of America and the light-hearted, talkative negroes. There is nearly similar contrast between the Malays and the Papuans, who live under the same physical conditions, and are separated from each other only by narrow space of sea.

We will first consider the arguments which may be advanced in favour of classing the races of man as distinct species, and then the arguments on the other side. If naturalist, who had never before seen Negro, Hottentot, Australian, or Mongolian, were to compare them, he would not perceive that they differed in multitude of characters, some of slight and some of considerable importance. On the contrary he would find that they were adapted to widely different climates, and that they differed somewhat in bodily constitution and mental disposition. If he were then told that hundreds of similar specimens could be brought from the same countries, he would assuredly declare that they were as good species as man, which he had been in the habit of affixing specific names. This conclusion would be greatly strengthened as soon as he had ascertained that these forms had all retained the same character for many centuries and that negroes, apparently identical with existing negroes, had lived at least 4000 years ago. He would also hear on this score from the *Monist* *The Malay Archipelago*, vol. ii., 1869 p. 174.

With respect to the figures in the famous Egyptian cases of Abou-Memel, M. Pouchet says (*The Races of the Nile*, Paris, Eng. transl., 1864, p. 20) that he is as far from finding recognisable representatives of the dozen or more nations which were supposed to be there as he recognises E.

ty of an excellent observer Dr Lund that the human skulls found in the caves of Brazil

he would not be able to declare that those forms must be distinct species, which differ not only in appearance but are fitted for different, as well as damp or dry countries, and for different arctic regions. He might appeal to the fact that no species in the group next to man—namely the Quadrumana, can resist a low temperature—any considerable change of climate and that the species which come nearest to man have never been reared to maturity under the temperate climate of Europe. It would be deeply impressed with the fact, first noticed by Agassiz, that the different races of man are distributed over the world in the same zoological provinces, as those inhabited by undoubted distinct species.

Dr. Huxley, however, is not so plain with the Papuans and Malays, who are separated as Mr Wallace has shown, by nearly the same line which divides the great Malay and Australian zoological provinces. The aborigines of America range through out the continent and thus first appears opposed to the also rule of most of the products of the South and North regions as differ widely in some few living forms, as the possum, ran from the one into the other as did the moose and the grizzly bear. Ed. n. t. a. The Eskimo, like other arctic animals, extend to the whole polar regions. It should be observed that the amount of difference between the mammals of the several zoological provinces does not correspond with the degree of separation between them, so that it can hardly be considered as an anomaly that the Negro differs more and the American much less from the other races of man, than do the mammals of the African and American continents from the mammals of the other provinces. Man, it may be added does not appear to have aboriginally inhabited an ocean.

Tyge of Meander, p. 11, states that Rameses II., or he (Cretan) has features superiorly European, whereas Amen, another first however in the specific distinction of the races of man (*Races of Man*, 1860, p. 21) presents a young Memnon (the same as Rameses II., as I am informed by M. Birch), who is in the worst manner that he is identical in character with the Jews of A. C. C. C. Again, he is found at the statue of Amenoph III. I agreed with officers of the establishment, both competent persons, that he had strongly-marked negro type of features but Memnon, Nutt and Gliddon (*ibid.*, p. 166, fig. 33) describe him as hybrid, but not of negro intermediate.

As quoted by Nutt and Gliddon, *Tyge of Meander*, 1854, p. 452. The same also corroborates evidence but Cretan still thinks that the subject requires further investigation.

Dr. Henry J. Orrin of the Human Races, in the *Christian Examiner* July 1850.

island and in this respect he resembles the other members of his

or as specifically distinct that is whether any of them are descended from distinct wild species every naturalist would lay much stress on their ex-

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exceptional one for I am informed by Mr Denny that the most different kinds of dogs fowls and pigeons in England are infested by the same species of *Pediculi* or lice. Now Mr A Murray has carefully examined the *Pediculi* collected in different countries from the different races of man³ and he finds that they differ not only in colour but in the structure of their claws and limbs. In every case in which many specimens were obtained the differences were constant. The surgeon of a whaling ship in the Pacific assured me that when the *Pediculi* with which some Sandwich Islanders on board swarmed strayed on to the bodies of the English sailors they died in the course of three or four days. These *Pediculi* were darker coloured and appeared different from those proper to the natives of Chiloe in South America of which he gave me specimens. These again appeared larger and much softer than European lice. Mr Murray procured four kinds from Africa namely from the Negroes of the Eastern and Western coasts from the Hottentots and Kaffirs two kinds from the natives of Australia two from North and two from South America. In these latter cases it may be presumed that the *Pediculi* came from natives inhabiting different districts. With insects slight structural differences if constant are generally esteemed of specific value and the fact of the races of man being infested by parasites which appear to be specifically distinct might fairly be urged as an argument that the races themselves ought to be classed as distinct species.

Our supposed naturalist having proceeded thus far in his investigation would next enquire whether the races of men when crossed were in any degree sterile. He might consult the work of Professor Broca a cautious and philosophical observer and in this he would find good evidence that some races were quite

fertile together but evidence of an opposite nature in regard to other races. Thus it has been asserted that the native women of Australia and Tasmania rarely produce children to European men the evidence however on this head has now been shewn to be almost valueless. The half castes are killed by the pure blacks and an account has lately been published of eleven half caste youths murdered and burnt at the same time whose remains were found by the police.¹⁰ Argon¹¹ has been

positively asserted that he has known mulatto families which have intermarried for several generations and have continued on an average as fertile as either pure whites or pure blacks. Enquiries formerly made by Sir C Lyell on this subject led him as he informs me to the same conclusion.¹² In the United States the census for the year 1840 included according to Dr Bachman 400,761 mulattoes and this number considering all the circumstances of the case seems small but it may partly be accounted for by the degraded and anomalous position of the class and by the profligacy of the women. A certain amount of absorption of mulattoes into negroes must always be in progress and this would lead to an apparent diminution of the former. The inferior vitality of mulattoes is spoken of in a trustworthy

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Transactions of the Royal Society of Edinburgh vol xxv 1861 p 67
On the Phenomena of Hybridity in the Genus Homo E g tr nslat. 1864

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a proof of the specific distinctness of the parent races. Not both animal and vegetable hybrids, which are produced from extremely distinct parents, are liable to premature death but the parents of mulattoes cannot be put under the category of extremely distinct species. The common mulatto is not inferior in life and vigour and virtuous to the pure races. The necessary connection between hybridity and vitality in analogous cases could be cited.

Even if it should hereafter be proved that all the races of man were perfectly fertile together, this hypothesis was inclined from the reasons to rank them as distinct species, might with justice argue that fertility and fertility are not sufficient reasons of specific distinctness. We know that these qualities are easily affected by changed conditions of life or by loss of breeding, and that these are regarded by the highest completion, for instance that of the unequal fertility of crosses between the same species. With the races which might be ranked as distinct species, perfect fertility is not from the fact which are absolutely infertile when crossed, that is, which are infertile or completely infertile. This degree of fertility does not exclude the possibility of degrees of difference between the parents' external structures, habits of life. Man, man respects may be compared with the animals which have been domesticated and large body of evidence can be adduced in favour of the Lullian doctrine that domesticated

The Ratio of Animals and Plants under Domestication, vol. p. 102 I may here remind the reader that the fertility of species is crossed is not specially acquired quality but, like the incapacity of certain trees to be grafted together is now almost always acquired differences. The nature of these differences is that they relate more especially to the reproductive system and much less to the external structure or to ordinary differences even. One important feature is the sterility of crossed species, especially in the both the sexes. The habituated to the conditions of life which that changed conditions has special influence on the reproductive system, and we have already seen to believe as before remarked) that the fluctuating conditions of domestication are almost certain that fertility is so general in species in nature that it is crossed. It has been observed by me (and vol. ii, p. 185, and *Origin of Species*, this ed., p. 142), that the sterility of crossed species has not been acquired through natural selection because that the forms have already been rendered very sterile it is scarcely possible that their fertility should be increased by the process. The sterility of the more numerous sterile individuals for the fertility in crosses, fewer and fewer offspring will be produced

to eliminate the fertility which is so general a result of the crossing of species in a state of nature. From these several considerations, it may be justly urged that the perfect fertility of the intercrossed races of man, if established would not absolutely preclude us from ranking them as distinct species.

parent forms ought to be ranked as species or varieties but after carefully studying the evidence I have come to the conclusion that the general rules of this kind can be trusted. The ordinary result of a cross the production of blended or intermediate forms but in certain cases some of the offspring take exclusively after one parent form, and some after the other. This is especially apt to occur when the parents differ in characters which first appeared as dominant attributes in ancestors. I refer to this point, because Dr. Rohlf's forms of the *h* has frequently been seen in Africa the offspring of negroes crossed with members of the races, the completely black or completely white rarely prevail. On the other hand it is not unusual that in America mulattoes commonly present an intermediate appearance.

We have now seen that a naturalist might feel himself fully justified in ranking the races of man as distinct species. The fact that they are distinguished by many differences in structure and constitution, some being of importance. These differences have also remained nearly constant for very long periods of time. A naturalist will have been some degree satisfied by the normal form of man, which is a great anomaly in the class of mammals, if mankind be viewed as a

from the highest breed, and the last only single individuals will be produced at the rarest intervals. But there is a higher grade of fertility than this. Both Gartner and Aubrey have proved that

select the more fertile individuals, which have already ceased to yield seeds so that the acme of fertility be the germ also selected, can then be gained through selection. This acme, and no doubt the other grades of fertility are the incidental results of certain differences in the constitution of the reproductive system of the species which are crossed.

The Ratio of Animals, &c. vol. ii, p. 92.

single species. He will have been struck with the distribution of the several so called races which accords with that of other undoubtedly distinct species of mammals. Finally he might urge that the mutual fertility of all the races has not as yet been fully proved and even if proved would not be an absolute proof of their specific identity.

On the other side of the question if our supposed naturalist were to enquire whether the forms of man keep distinct like ordinary species when mingled together in large numbers in the same country he would immediately discover that this was by no means the case. In Brazil he would behold an immense mongrel population of Negroes and Portuguese in *Chloé* and other parts of South America he would behold the whole population consisting of Indians and Spaniards blended in various degrees.¹⁶ In many parts of the same continent he would meet with the most complex crosses between Negroes, Indians and Europeans and judging from the vegetable kingdom such triple crosses afford the severest test of the mutual fertility of the parent forms. In one island of the Pacific he would find a small population of mingled Polynesian and English blood and in the Fiji Archipelago a population of Polynesians and Negritos crossed in all degrees. Many analogous cases could be adduced for instance in Africa. Hence the races of man are not sufficiently distinct to inhabit the same country without fusion and the absence of fusion affords the usual and best test of specific distinctness.

Our naturalist would likewise be much disturbed as soon as he perceived that the distinctive characters of all the race were highly variable. This fact strikes every one on first beholding the negro slaves in Brazil who have been imported from all parts of Africa. The same remark holds good with the Polynesians and with many other races. It may be doubted whether any character can be named which is distinctive of a race and is constant. Savages even within the limits of the same tribe are not nearly so uniform in character as has been often asserted. Hottentot women offer certain peculiarities more strongly marked than those occurring in any other race but these are known not to be of constant occurrence. In the

several American tribes colour and hairness differ considerably as does colour to a certain degree and the shape of the features greatly in the negroes of Africa. The shape of the skull varies much in some races¹⁷ and so it is with every other character. Now all naturalists have learnt by dearly bought experience how rash it is to attempt to define species by the aid of inconstant characters.

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independently in many cases as far as we can judge of their having intercrossed. Man has been studied more carefully than any other animal and yet there is the greatest possible diversity amongst capable judges whether he should be classed as a single species or race or as two (Virey) as three (Jacquinet) as four (Kant) five (Blumenbach) six (Buffon) seven (Hunter) eight (Agassiz) eleven (Lichering) fifteen (Bory de St Vincent) sixteen (Desmoulins) twenty two (Morton) sixty (Crawfurth) or as sixty three according to Burke.¹⁸ This diversity of judgment does not prove that the races ought not to be ranked as species but it shews that they graduate into each other and that it is hardly possible to discover clear distinctive characters between them.

Every naturalist who has had the misfortune to undertake the description of a group of highly varying organisms has encountered cases (I speak after experience) precisely like that of man and if of a cautious disposition he will end by uniting all the forms which graduate into each other under a single species for he will say to himself that he has no right to give name to objects which he cannot define. Cases of this kind occur in the Order which include man namely in certain genera of monkeys whilst in other genera, as in *Cercopithecus*, most of the species can be determined with certainty. In the American genus *Cebus*, the various forms are ranked by some naturalists as species by others as mere geographical races. Now if numerous specimens of

¹⁶ M. de Quatrefages has given (*Anthropogéographie*, Paris 1869 p. 22) an interesting account of the process and energy of the industrial revolution in the most crossed race of Europe, the English. He remarks that the mixture of the blood of the races.

ON THE RACES OF MAN

CHAP. VII.

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of man. Nevertheless, it must be confessed that there are forms, the last in the gettable kind, which we cannot find naming, as species, but which are connected together by a number of less gradations, and dependently of intercrossing.

Some naturalists have lately employed the term sub-species to designate forms which possess many of the characteristics of true species, but which hardly deserve so high a rank. Now if we reflect on the weighty arguments brought forward for raising the races of man to the

the same race will perhaps always be in-

done of the large genus generally in the closely allied forms, which can be distinguished only with much difficulty, whilst the smaller genera within the same family in the forms that are perfectly distinct yet all must be ranked equally as species. So again, species within the same large genus by no means resemble each other to the same degree, in the contrary some of them can generally be arranged in little groups round the species, like satellite round planets.

Though it is true that mankind consists of one or several species has of late years been much discussed by anthropologists, who are divided into two schools of monogenists and polygenists. Those who do not admit the principle of distinctness must look at species as separate creations, some man as distinct titles and they must decide what forms of man they will consider as species by the analogy of the method commonly pursued among other organic beings as species. But it is hopeless not to court this point.

Prof. Agassiz has carefully described several striking cases in his *Étude sur les Mammifères*, p. 11, 116, 118, 124-126. Prof. Agassiz has made valuable remarks on the intermediate forms in the composition of America.

Origins of Species, this vol., p. 22

until some definition of the term species is generally accepted and the definition must not include an indeterminate element such as an act of creation. We might as well attempt with the same definition to decide whether a certain number of houses should be called a village town, or city. We have a practical illustration of the difficulty in the ever-ending doubts whether many closely-allied mammals, birds, insects, and plants, which represent each other respectively in North America and Europe should be ranked as species or geographical races and the like holds true of the productions of many islands situated at some little distance from the nearest continent.

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our domestic animals the question whether the various races have arisen from one or more species is somewhat different. Although it may be admitted that all the races, as well as all the natural species within the same genus, have sprung from the same primitive stock, yet it is a fit subject for discussion, whether all the domestic races of the dog, for instance, have acquired their present amount of difference since some species was first domesticated by man, whether they owe some of their characters to inheritance from distinct species, which had already been differentiated in state of nature. With man, the question can arise whether it can be said to have been domesticated at any particular period.

During an early stage in the divergence of the races of man from a common stock, the differences between the races and the number must have been small consequently as far as the distinguishing characters are concerned they then had less claim to rank as distinct species than the existing so-called races. Nevertheless, so arbitrary the term of species, that clearly races would be proper, have been ranked by some naturalists as distinct species, if their differences, although extremely slight, had been more constant than they are at present, and had not graduated to each other.

See Prof. Huxley on this effect in the *Fortnightly Review* 1863, p. 23.

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But the most weighty of all the arguments against treating the races of man as distinct species is that they graduate into each other independently in many cases as far as we can judge of their having intercrossed. Man has been studied more carefully than any other

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CHAP. VII.

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tropp alia. arrow heads, brought from the most distant parts of the world, and manufactured at the most remote periods, are almost identical and this fact can only be accounted for by the various races having similar intellectual and mental powers. The same observation has been made by archaeologists with respect to certain widely prevalent ornaments, such as rings, beads, &c. and with respect to various simple beliefs and customs, such as the burying of the dead under megalithic structures. I remember observing in South America, that there, as in so many other parts of the world, the general chosen summits of lofty hills, to throw up piles of stones, the record of some remarkable event, for burying their dead.

Now when naturalists observe close agreement in numerous small details of habits, tastes, and dispositions between the more domestic races, between nearly allied natural forms, they use this fact as an argument that they are descended from a common progenitor who was then isolated and consequently that all should be classed under the same species. The same argument may be applied with much force to the race of man.

As it is improbable that the numerous and unimportant points of resemblance between the several races of man in bodily structure and mental faculties did not here refer to similar conditions should all have been independent of acquired they must have been inherited from progenitors who had these same characters. We thus gain some insight into the actual state of man before he had spread over the face of the earth. The spreading of man's remains widely separated by the sea, no doubt, preceded an great amount of intermixture of character in the several races, for otherwise we should sometimes meet with the same race in distinct continents and thus we have the case of J. Lubbock, after com-

paring the arts now practised by savages in all parts of the world, specifies those which man could not have known, when he first wandered from his original birthplace if he once learnt them would have been forgotten. He thus shows that the spear which is but a development of the knife-point, and the club which is but a long handle, are the only things left." He admits, however, that the art of making fire probably had been already discovered, for it is common to all the races now existing, and was known to the ancient cave-inhabitants of Europe. Perhaps the art of making rude canoes or rafts was likewise known before man existed at remote epochs, when the land in many places stood at very different levels to what it does now. It would have been built with timber and skins, to have spread widely. Sir J. Lubbock further remarks how improbable it is that our earliest ancestors could have counted as high as ten, considering that so many races now in existence cannot get beyond five. Nevertheless, at the early period the intellectual and social faculties of man could hardly have been inferior to any creature to whom he possessed to present by the lowest stages otherwise primitive man could not have been so much more successful in the struggle for life as produced by his art and wide diffusion.

From the fundamental difference between certain languages, some philologists have inferred that when man first became widely diffused, he was not speaking any language, it may be suspected that languages, far less perfect than any now spoken, aided by gestures, might have been used and yet have left no traces in subsequent and more highly developed times. With the use of some language, however imperfect, it appears doubtful whether the human intellect could have risen to the standard implied by his dominant position at an early period.

Whether primitive man, when he possessed but few wants, and the simplest rudest kind and when his power of language was tremulously imperfect, would have deserved to be called man, must depend on the definition in which we employ the series of terms graduating sensibly from some primitive creature to man as he now exists, it would be impossible to fix any definite point when the term man might be used. But this is not the object of my little importance. So again, it is almost a matter of indifference whether the so-called races of man

Prehistoric Times, 1865 p. 54.

180. *Archæologia* Forms of Implements. Memoirs of the Anthropological Society by H. M. Westropp. The Irish Prehistoric Archaeological Society. Dublin. 1868. p. 104. Westropp. On the remains, &c. *Journal of Anthropological Society*, vol. 2, p. 2. Series 40 p. 100, June 2, 1868, p. 2.

Journal of Researches Forde of the Beagle p. 18.

It is however possible though far from probable that the early progenitors of man might formerly have diverged much in character until they became more unlike each other than any now existing races but that subsequently as suggested by Vogt²² they converged in character. When man selects the offspring of two distinct species for the same object he sometimes induces a considerable amount of convergence as far as general appearance is concerned. This is the case as shown by von Nathusius²³ with the improved breeds of the pig which are descended from two distinct species and in a less marked manner with the improved breeds of cattle. A great anatomist Gratiolet maintains that the anthropomorphous apes do not form a natural sub group but that the orang is a highly developed gibbon or Semnopithecus the chimpanzee a highly developed Macacus and the gorilla a highly developed mandrill. If this conclusion which rests almost exclusively on brain characters be admitted we should have a case of convergence at least in external characters for the anthropomorphous apes are certainly more like each other in many points than they are to other apes. All analogical resemblances as of a whale to a fish may indeed be said to be cases of convergence but this term has never been applied to superficial and adaptive resemblances. It would however be extremely rash to attribute to convergence close similarity of character in many points of structure amongst the modified descendants of widely distinct beings. The form of a crystal is determined solely by the molecular forces and it is not surprising that dissimilar substances should sometimes assume the same form but with organic beings we should bear in mind that the form of each depends on an infinity of complex relations namely on variations due to causes far too intricate to be followed — on the nature of the variations preserved these depending on the physical conditions and still more on the surrounding organisms which compete with each — and lastly on inheritance (in itself a fluctuating element) from innumerable progenitor all of which I have had their forms determined through equally complex relations. It appears incredible that the modified descendants of two organisms if

these differed from each other in a marked manner should ever afterwards converge so closely as to lead to a near approach to identity throughout their whole organisation. In the case of the convergent races of pigs above referred to evidence of their descent from two primitive stock is according to von Nathusius still plainly retained in certain bones of their skulls. If the races of man had descended as is supposed by some naturalists from two or more species which differed from each other as much or nearly as much as does the orang from the gorilla it can hardly be doubted that marked differences in the structure of certain bones would still be discoverable in man as he now exists.

Although the existing races of man differ in many respects as in colour hair shape of skull proportions of the body &c yet if their whole structure be taken into consideration they are found to resemble each other closely in a multitude of points. Many of these are of so unimportant or of so singular a nature that it is extremely improbable that they should have been independently acquired by originally distinct species or races. The same remark holds good with equal or greater force with respect to the numerous points of mental

— mind as any three races that can be named yet I was incessantly struck whilst living with the Feugians on board the *Teague* with the many little traits of character shewing how similar their minds were to ours and so it was with a full blooded negro with whom I happened once to be intimate.

He who will read Mr Tylor's and Sir J Lubbock's interesting works²⁴ can hardly fail to be deeply impressed with the close similarity between the men of all races in tastes, dispositions and habits. This is shown by the pleasure which they all take in dancing rude music acting painting tattooing and their wise decorating themselves in their mutual comprehension of gesture language by the same expression in their features and by the same articulate cries when excited by the same emotions. This similarity or rather identity is striking when contrasted with the different expressions and cries made by dis-

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²²Tylor f ly History f M n l nd, 1865 w th
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 ply in series of forms gradually ascending
 from some peevish creature to man as he now
 exists, it would be impossible to fix any
 definite point when the term man ought to
 be used. But this is a matter of very little im-
 portance. So far as it is almost a matter of
 indifference whether the so-called races of man
 *P. *Historic Times*, 1869 p. 54.

*O. Various Forms of Implements. If
 mon. of the Anthropological Society by H. M. Westropp.
 The Primitive Implements of the Stone Age, Eng.
 translated edited by Sir J Lubbock, 1868, p. 104.
 Westropp. On Cromlechs, &c., *Journal of*
Anthropological Society as in *Scientific Opinions*, June
 2, 1869, p. 3.

Journal of the Researches of the Beagle p.
 46.

It is however possible though far from probable that the early progenitors of man might formerly have diverged much in character until they became more unlike each other than any now existing races but that subsequently as suggested by Vogt²² they converged in character. When man selects the offspring of two distinct species for the same object, he sometimes induces a considerable amount of convergence as far as general appearance is concerned. This is the case as shown by von Nathusius²³ with the improved breeds of the pig which are descended from two distinct species and in a less marked manner with the improved breeds of cattle. A great anatomist, Gratiolet maintains that the anthropomorphous apes do not form a natural sub group but that the orang is a highly developed gibbon or *Semnopithecus* the chimpanzee a highly developed *Macacus* and the gorilla a highly developed mandrill. If this conclusion which rests almost exclusively on brain characters be admitted we should have a case of convergence at least in external characters for the anthropomorphous apes are certainly more like each other in many points than they are to other apes. All analogical resemblances as of a whale to a fish may indeed be said to be of

these differed from each other in a marked manner should ever afterwards converge so closely as to lead to a near approach to identity throughout their whole organisation. In the case of the convergent races of pigs above referred to evidence of their descent from two primitive stock is according to von Nathusius still plainly retained in certain bones of their skulls. If the races of man had descended as is supposed by some naturalists from two or more species which differed from each other as much or nearly as much as does the orang from the gorilla it can hardly be doubted that marked differences in the structure of certain bones would still be discoverable in man as he now exists.

Although the existing races of man differ in many respects as in colour hair shape of skull proportions of the body &c. yet if their whole structure be taken into consideration they are found to resemble each other closely in a multitude of points. Many of these are of so unimportant or of so singular a nature that it is extremely improbable that they should have been independently acquired by aboriginally distinct species or races. The same remark holds good with equal or greater force with respect to the numerous points of mental similarity between the most distinct races of man. The American aborigines Negroes and Europeans are as different from each other in mind as any three races that can be named yet I was incessantly struck whilst living with the Feugians on board the *Beagle* with the many little traits of character showing how

very rash to attribute convergence
ny points of
cendants of
a crystal is
ocular forces and
it is not surprising that dissimilar substances
should sometimes assume the same form but
with organic beings we should bear in mind
that the form of each depends on an infinity
of complex relations namely on variations due
to causes far too intricate to be followed — on
the nature of the variations preserved these
depending on the physical conditions and
still more on the surrounding organisms which
compete with each — and in the inheritance
of form in
have had
equally com
plex relations. It appears incredible that the
modified descendants of two organisms if

He who will read Mr Tylor's and Sir J Lubbock's interesting works²⁴ can hardly fail

pleasure which they all take in dancing rule
music acting painting tattooing and other
wise decorating themselves in their mutual
comprehension of gesture language by the
same expression in their features and by the
same inarticulate cries when excited by the
same emotions. This similarity or rather
identity is striking when contrasted with the
different expressions and cries made by dis-

²² Vogt's *Ueber die Entstehung der Gattungen* 1861 p 119
²³ von Nathusius *Ueber die Entstehung der Gattungen* 1861 p 119

²⁴ Tylor's *Primitive Culture* 1865 with
repeated references to the same see p 1. Lubbock's
The Origin of Civilization 2nd ed 1869

wh a weak tribe i not thus bruptly
sw pt w y f it nce b rns to decrease, it
g erally goes o decaas ng u til t becomes
ext t.²²

Wh civilised nati ns com into co tact
with barbarians th trugl sh rt, except
h re deadlv l m te g it ault the
nati race Of the se w l l ad t tle
vict ry fci lised t ns, som are plain and
mple, th rs complex and bscu W can
see that th cult ti n f th land w ll be
f tal in many way to sav g s, f th y can
n t, w ll n t, change th h t ts. N w
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disease fte cause m h d th, til those
h are most s cept bl t ts d t ti
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fact that the first meeting f d tinct and
sep rated peopl g t disease.²⁴ M
prc t wh in Vanco I lanl losel t
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that changed hab ts f lif conseq t th
ad t f Europeans, l ce m h ll h alth

be i juri us ti msel a. I am mu f in
d bl d t Mr H H H w rth f r l all d
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d duals,²⁵ w l w re n 1832 tran ported to
Flind rs I lanl This island sit ted between
Tasmania and Australia, is f rty m l s l
and from tw l t eigh ten m le broad it
seems h lthy and th nati es w ll
tre ted N rth less, th y ff ed gre tly n
h alth. In 1834 tl y consi ted (Bon ck, p
20) of f ty se n ad lt m les, forty e ght
adult f mal s, and exten hildren, or m all
f 111 so is. I 1835 ly ne hundred were
left. As th y co ti ed ray dly t decrease
and as th y th msel es ti ght th t th y
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so thern part f Tasmania. Th y th n con
ted (Dec. 0th, 184) of f urteen m n,
tw nty tw w m n and t n l lren.²⁶ But
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man (wh ded n 1869) and th ee ld ly
w m lo e ur ed Th n f rti lity f the
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th liability f all to ill h alth and death. At
th tum wh nly n e w men w lft t
Oj te Co th y told Mr Bo w ck (p 356)
th t nly tw had borne hildre and
these t had tog ther produced ly three
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dinary tat f th gs, D ctory r marks th t
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n t es. If l f t t msel t roam as ti y
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w th ir place.²⁷

Th grad f th ci l sati seems to be a
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feared th mroads f East rn barbarians w
any ch f ar w uld be ridiculous. It is m re
uri us fact, as M B h t has remarked
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so th ld m alist w ld ha mused
th t b t th re is lam ti n any write
f that period th pe isian barbarians.²⁸

²²Gerland *ibid.* a. 12, g eaf cts pport f this

ne ne (e p 430) good ma y cases bearing
this subject see also Gerla d, *ibid.* S. Poepp g
speaks f the breath of ci l disao as poiso us to
sa es.

²³proat, *Scene and Studies f S eap L f* 1868
p. 254

²⁴Bage t, *Phy cs d P lica, Fort ghly Re
view* April 1, 1868, p 450

are thus designated or are ranked as species or sub species but the latter term appears the more appropriate. Finally we may conclude that when the principle of evolution is generally accepted as it surely will be before long the dispute between the monogenists and the polygenists will die a silent and unobserved death.

One other question ought not to be passed over without notice namely whether as is sometimes assumed each sub species or race of man has sprung from a single pair of progenitors. With our domestic animals a new race can readily be formed by carefully matching the varying offspring from a single pair or even from a single individual possessing some new character but most of our races have been formed not intentionally from a selected pair but unconsciously by the preservation of many individuals which have varied however slightly in some useful or desired manner. If in one country stronger and heavier horses and in another country lighter and fleetier ones were habitually preferred we may feel sure that two distinct sub breeds would be produced in the course of time without any one pair having been separated and bred from in either country. Many races have been thus formed and their manner of formation is closely analogous to that of natural species. We know also that the horses taken to the Falkland Islands have during successive generations become smaller and weaker whilst those which have run wild on the Llanos have acquired larger and coarser heads and such changes are manifestly due not to any one pair but to all the individuals having been subjected to the same conditions aided perhaps by the principle of reversion. The new sub breeds in such cases are not descended from any single pair but from many individuals which have varied in different degrees but in the same general manner and we may conclude that the races of man have been similarly produced the modifications being either the direct result of exposure to different conditions or the indirect result of some form of selection. But to this latter subject we shall presently return.

On the Extinction of the Races of Man — The partial or complete extinction of many races and sub races of man is historically known. Humboldt saw in South America a parrot which was the sole living creature that could

peak a word of the language of a lost tribe. Ancient monuments and stone implements found in all parts of the world about which no tradition has been preserved by the present inhabitants indicate much extinction. Some small and broken tribes, remnants of former race still survive in isolated and generally mountainous districts. In Europe the ancient races were all according to Shaaflhausen²

lower in the scale than the rudest living savage they must therefore have differed to a certain extent from any existing race. The remains described by Professor Broca from Le Puyies though they unfortunately appear to have belonged to a single family indicate a race with a most singular combination of low or simious and of high characteristics. This race is entirely different from any other ancient or modern that we have heard of.³ It differed therefore from the quaternary race of the caverns of Belgium.

Man can long resist conditions which appear extremely unfavourable for his existence.⁴ He has long lived in the extreme regions of the North with no wood for his canoes and implements and with only blubber as fuel.

It is worthy to be called a novel. In South Africa the aborigines wander over arid plains where dangerous beasts abound. Man can withstand the deadly influence of the Terai at the foot of the Himalaya, and the pestilential shores of tropical Africa.

Extinction follows chiefly from the competition

of the different races.

especially lessened fertility. If any one of these checks increases in power even slightly the tribe thus affected tends to decrease and when of two adjoining tribes one becomes less numerous and less powerful than the other the contest is soon settled by a slaughter, cannibalism, slavery and absorption. Even

²Translation in *Anthropological Review* Oct. 1868, p. 431.

³Dr G. Land *Über das Aussterben der Menschen* 1868, s. 52.

reared more children and there would have been less mortality. Another careful observer of the natives Mr Davis remarks. The births have been few and the deaths numerous. This may have been in a great measure owing to their change of living and food but more so to their banishment from the mainland of Van Diemen's Land and consequent depression of spirits (Bonwick pp 388 390)

Similar facts have been observed in two widely different parts of Australia. The celebrated explorer Mr Gregory told Mr Bonwick that in Queensland the want of reproduction was being already felt with the blacks even in the most recently settled parts and that decay would set in. Of thirteen aborigines from Shark's Bay who visited Murchison River twelve died of consumption within three months³³

The decrease of the Maories of New Zealand has been carefully investigated by Mr Fenton in an admirable report from which all the following statements with one exception are taken³⁴. The decrease in number since 1830 is admitted by every one, including the natives themselves and is still steadily progressing. Although it has hitherto been found impossible to take an actual census of the natives their numbers were carefully estimated by residents in many districts. The result seems trustworthy and shows that during the fourteen years previous to 1838 the decrease was 19.42 per cent. Some of the tribes thus carefully examined lived above a hundred miles apart some on the coast some inland and their means of subsistence

he shews (p 33) that in 1844 there was one non adult for every 2.57 adults whereas in 1858 there was only one non adult for every 3.27 adults. The mortality of the adults is also great. He adduces as a further cause of the decrease the inequality of the sexes for fewer females are born than males. To this latter point depending perhaps on a widely distinct cause I shall return in a future chapter. Mr Fenton contrasts with astonishment the decrease in New Zealand with the increase in Ireland countries not very dissimilar in climate and where the inhabitants now follow nearly similar habits. The Maories themselves (p 35) attribute their decadence in some measure to the introduction of new food and clothing and the attendant change of habits and it will be seen when we consider the influence of changed conditions on fertility that they are probably right. The diminution began between the years 1830 and 1840 and Mr Fenton shews (p 40) that about 1830 the art of manufacturing putrid corn (maize) by long steeping in water was discovered and largely practised and this proves that a change of habits was beginning among the natives even when New Zealand was only thinly inhabited by Europeans. When I visited the Bay of Islands in 183 the dress and food of the inhabitants had already been much modified they raised potatoe maize and other agricultural produce and exchanged them for English manufactured goods and tobacco.

It is evident from many statements in the life of Bishop Hallattson that the Melaneians of the New Hebrides and neighbouring archipelagoes suffered to an extraordinary degree in health and perished in large numbers when they were removed to New Zealand Norfolk Island and other salubrious places in order to be educated as missionaries.

When another census was taken and the number given as only 3639 shewing a decrease of 30.9 per cent³⁵. Mr Fenton after shewing in detail the insufficiency of the various causes usually assigned in explanation of this extraordinary decrease such as new diseases the profuse wars the decrease of the women and on the extraordinary mortality of the young children (pp 31 34) In proof of this

The decrease of the native population of the Sandwich Islands is as notorious as that of New Zealand. It has been roughly estimated by those best capable of judging that when Cook discovered the island in 1769 the population amounted to about 300000. According to a loose census in 183 the numbers then were 14050. In 183 and at several subsequent periods an accurate census was officially taken but I have been able to obtain only the following returns

ON THE RACES OF MAN

CHAP. VII.

not quite free in their native country, nor are others thus circumstanced frequently so, but the expense of giving the natives produce some of the price, but I was then in a state of nature and as bearing on the two cases I must be so important to remark that the young are apt to be weak and sickly, or malformed, and to perish at an early age.

Very how general is this law of the superabundance of the reproductive at not changed course of life and that it shows good with our nearest allies the Quadrumanus. I can have doubt but that it applies to man in his primitive state. If we suppose any race are induced suddenly to change their habit of life they become more less sterile and their offspring suffer a little in the same manner and from the same cause as do the elephant and hunting leopard in India, many monkeys in America, and host of animals of all kinds, on removal from their natural conditions.

We can see why it is that aborigines, who have long inhabited islands, and who must have long used nearly uniform conditions, should be peculiarly affected by change in their habits, as seems to be the case. Civilised races can certainly resist changes of all kinds far better than savages and in this respect the domesticated domestic animals, for though the latter sometimes suffer in health (for instance European cats in India) they are rarely rendered sterile though a few such instances have been recorded. The immigrant civilised races and domesticated animals are probably that their habits have been adjusted to the climate, and therefore have grown somewhat more accustomed to the altered conditions than the majority of wild animals and to their habits for several generations or been carried from one country and to distant families or subspecies have been crossed. It appears that a cross which civilised races are more apt to an aboriginal race an immigrant from the different consequences of changed conditions. Thus the crossed offspring from the Tahitians and English, who were settled in Pitcairn Island, increased so rapidly, that the island was soon overstocked and in June 1790 the whole removed to Norfolk Island. The consequence of 60 married persons and 134 children, making a total of 194. If we then like were increased so rapidly that about half of them returned to Pitcairn Island in 1799. The same

Quarterly Journal of Science, vol. 11, p. 16.

happened in January 1790, 300 souls the males and females being in nearly equal numbers. What a contrast does the case present with that of the Tahitians the 17 of the island increased in 1790 to 17 and a half, and from 194 to 300 whereas the Tahitians decreased during fifteen years from 120 to 40, of which half a number were now re-malicious.

So again in the interval between the years of 1790 and 1791 the number of females in the island which had decreased by 1790 would the half-castes, who are bound to be half as fertile as the natives, but I do not know whether the latter number includes the offspring from the half-castes, or whether the half-castes of the first generation.

The cases which I have here given as illustrations of the law now have been selected to

show that

proved by any case such as that of the animal of a country must be that does not their habits and change to other habits. It is an interesting circumstance that the half-bred to wild animals becoming domesticated, which involves the loss of their breeding freedom, when first captured, and we feel back to wild men, who are brought into contact with civilisation, owing to the loss of a civilised race is the same, namely, it runs from changed conditions of life.

Finally, although the gradual decrease and ultimate extinction of the races of man is a highly curious problem depending on many causes which dwell in our present powers and at present times it is the same problem as that presented by the extinction of some of the highest animals of the fossil bone. For instance, which has appeared from North America, which are extinct, and is repeated, in the same districts, by countless troops of the Spanish Lizard. The New Zealand seems notorious of this parallelism for the various species of the native and the European. Though the animal is getting to be extinct, and really, we must wish to see that the previous causes and the manner of action, I ought not to be so far from reason as long as

keep it still in mind that the increase of the details are taken from *The Manner of the House*, by Lady Barker 1790 and from *Pitcairn Island*, referred to be printed by the House of Commons, M. 1814. The following statement is about the same, which islands are from the *Honorable Gentleman* and from Mr. C. 1814.

of climate in fact take them away from their island homes and they are almost certain to die and that independently of diet or extraneous influences. He further states that the inhabitants of the Valley of Nepal which is extremely hot in summer and also the various hill tribes of India suffer from dysentery and fever when on the plains and they die if they attempt to pass the whole year there.

We thus see that many of the wilder races of man are apt to suffer much in health when subjected to changed conditions or habits of life and not exclusively from being transported to a new climate. Mere alterations in habits which do not appear injurious in themselves seem to have this same effect and in several cases the children are particularly liable to suffer. It has often been said as Mr Macnamara remarks that man can resist with impunity the greatest diversities of climate and other changes but this is true only of the civilised races. Man in his wild condition seems to be in this respect almost as susceptible as his nearest allies the anthropoid apes, which have never yet survived long when removed from their native country.

Lessened fertility from changed conditions, as in the case of the Tasmanians.

of every population would sooner or later lead to extinction. The diminution of fertility may be explained in some cases by the profligacy of the women (as until lately with the Tahitians) but Mr Fenton has shewn that this explanation by no means agrees with the New Zealanders nor does it with the Tasmanians.

In the paper above quoted Mr Macnamara gives reasons for believing that the inhabitants of districts subject to malaria are apt to be sterile but this cannot apply in several of the above cases. Some writers have suggested that the aborigines of islands have suffered in fertility and health from long continued interbreeding but in the above cases infertility has coincided too closely with the arrival of Europeans for us to admit this explanation. Nor have we at present any reason to believe that man is highly sensitive to the evil effects of interbreeding especially in areas so large as New Zealand and the Sandwich archipelago with its diversified stations. On the contrary

it is known that the present inhabitants of Norfolk Island are nearly all cousins or relations, as are the Todas in India, and the inhabitants of some of the Western Islands of Scotland and yet they seem not to have suffered in fertility.

A much more probable view is suggested by the analogy of the lower animals. The reproductive system can be shewn to be susceptible to an extraordinary degree (though why we know not) to changed conditions of life and this susceptibility leads both to beneficial and to evil results. A large collection of facts on this subject is given in chap. xviii of my *Evolution of Animals and Plants under Domestication* but I can here give only the briefest abstract and every student interested in the subject may consult the above work. Verbal changes increase the health, vigour and fertility of most or all organic beings, whilst other changes are known to render a large number of animals sterile. One of the most familiar cases is that of tamed elephants not breeding in India though they often breed in Africa, where the females are allowed to roam about the forests to some extent, and are thus placed under more natural conditions. The case of various American monkey both sexes of which have been kept for many years together in their own countries, and yet have very rarely or never bred is a more apposite instance because of their relationship to man. It is remarkable how slight a change in the conditions often induces sterility in a wild animal when captured and this is the most strange as all our domesticated animals have become more fertile than they were in a state of nature and some of them can retain the most unnatural conditions with undiminished fertility. Certain groups of animals are much more liable than others to be affected by captivity and generally all the species of the same group are affected in the same manner. But sometime a single species in a group is rendered sterile whilst the others are not so or the other hand a single species may retain its fertility whilst most of the others fail to breed. The males and females of some species when confined or when allowed to live almost like

the domesticated animals.

ON THE RACES OF MAN

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 f r i a l o n f 4 m a l d l l, p. 16

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each species and each race is constantly checked in various ways so that if any new check even a slight one be superadded the race will surely decrease in number and decreasing numbers will sooner or later lead to extinction the end in most cases being promptly determined by the inroads of conquering tribes

On the Formation of the Races of Man—In some cases the crossing of distinct races has led to the formation of a new race The singular fact that the Europeans and Hindoos who belong to the same Aryan stock and speak a language fundamentally the same differ widely in appearance whilst Europeans differ but little from Jews who belong to the Semitic stock and speak quite another language has been accounted for by Broca⁴⁹ through certain Aryan branches having been largely crossed by indigenous tribes during their wide diffusion When two races in close contact cross the first result is a heterogeneous mix

from the black squat tribes of the mountains to the tall olive coloured Brahman with his intellectual brow calm eyes and high but narrow head so that it is necessary in courts of justice to ask the witnesses whether they are Santalis or Hindoos⁵⁰ Whether a heterogeneous people such as the inhabitants of some of the Polynesian islands formed by the crossing of two distinct races with few or no pure members left would ever become homogeneous is not known from direct evidence But as with our domesticated animals a cross breed can certainly be fixed and made uniform by careful selection⁵¹ in the course of a few generations we may infer that the free inter crossing of a heterogeneous mixture during a long descent would supply the place of selection and overcome any tendency to reversion so that the crossed race would ultimately become homogeneous though it might not partake in an equal degree of the characters of the two parent races

Of all the differences between the races of man the colour of the skin is the most conspicuous and one of the best marked It was formerly thought that differences of this kind could be accounted for by long exposure to

different climates but Pallas first shewed that this is not tenable and he has since been followed by almost all anthropologists⁵² This view has been rejected chiefly because the distribution of the variously coloured races, most of whom have long inhabited their present homes does not coincide with corresponding differences of climate Some little weight may be given to such cases as that of the Dutch families who as we hear on excellent authority⁵³ have not undergone the least change of colour after residing for three centuries in South Africa An argument on the same side may likewise be drawn from the uniform appearance in various parts of the world of gipsies and Jews though the uniformity of the latter has been somewhat exaggerated⁵⁴ A very damp or a very dry atmosphere has been supposed to be more influential in modifying the colour of the skin than mere heat but as D'Orbigny in South America and Livingstone in Africa arrived at diametrically opposite conclusions with respect to dampness and dryness any conclusion on this head must be considered as very doubtful⁵⁵

Various facts which I have given elsewhere prove that the colour of the skin and hair is sometimes correlated in a surprising manner with a complete immunity from the action of certain vegetable poisons and from the attacks of certain parasites Hence it occurred to me that negroes and other dark races might have acquired their dark tints by the darker individuals escaping from the deadly influence of the miasma of their native countries during a long series of generations

I afterwards found that this same idea had long ago occurred to Dr Wells⁵⁶ It has long been known that negroes and even mulattoes, are almost completely exempt from the yellow

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th die ge by God *De l'Espèce* 1859
v l i p 246 &
"S r A d w Smith as quoted by K or *Race* f
M 1850 p 473
"Se D Qu tr f g th s l d *Retu de Co rs*
Sci nt fiqu Oct. 17 1868 p 731
"La ng ton T l d R he S Africa
1857 nn 338 339 D Orb g y quoted by Godro

⁴⁹ On Anthropology tr n l a t o *Anth opol g*
scal Retu Jan 1868 p 381

⁵⁰ *Tl t m l f R al Bengal* 1868 p 194

⁵¹ *The V r t n f A male and Pl nts und Do-*
mestication, v l i i p. 05

⁵² col f ted w tl co t t t Al pecul t t
re g y f f t mal nd l l nt
u der Dom tical l p 22 33

ON THE RACES OF MAN

CHAP. VII.

destructive in tropical America. It is cured with but little success, and ascer-

and ascertained that the first arrived as a boy in the
 11. The disease gradually grew in frequency.

and peculiar. The result of acclimatisation in the case of the negro regiments recruited in the Sudan, and those of the Egyptian and Mexican war, escaped the influence of malaria equally with the negroes. Finally brought from various parts of Africa and accustomed to the climate of the West Indies. That acclimatisation plays a part, as shown by the many cases in which negroes have become somewhat liable to tropical

the death rate of the immigrants was proportionate to the latitude of the country whence they had come. With the negro immigrants as far as this ultimate fatal result, namely, pulmonary disease, is concerned, the influence of the origin of tropical America has been decided from time immemorial as exempt from malaria, and the R. H. B. T. is a testimony to the fact that the districts of the African continent, where the inhabitants are compelled annually to fight the malaria, can remain without safety. The malaria of the negro is in any degree correlated with the colour of the skin is more conjecture than may be correlated with some difference in his blood system, the tissues. Nevertheless, from the facts he has added to and from some connecting points existing between the complaint and tendency to consumption, the conclusion seems to me not improbable. Consequently I

of the progress of malaria is permitted from the Direct General of the Medical Department of the Army to try in the tropics. The gun is for service in the tropics. The illness of the negroes, but has received the same low marked cases have been recorded. The indigenous malaria of relation between the colour of the skin and the disease is a constant. It is to be noted that there is some limited degree of relation between the colour of the races and the climate habitually. The influence of the climate seems rather to be a matter of degree. The relation of the colour of the hair of the Europeans between the colour of their hair and their liability to the diseases of the tropics. If the negroes of the tropical regions, but the healthy tropical districts, it will be so good as first to consider as a danger of comparison. The malaria is the free health of the red and black nations. It will be the same.

some of the cases have been troubled by the

See for instance, in the Glidd Type of

M. J. Tulloch in paper read before the Statistical Society April 20 1840 and given in the Annals 1840 p. 23.

The Placidity of the Human Race (translat.) 1864 p. 60.

Quatrefages, *Leite de l'Épée* H. M. ne 1861 p. 203. Warts, *Leite de l'Épée* to Anthropology translated. L. L. 1863 p. 124. The negroes and negro cases in his *Leite*.

habit of the negroes, and the tropical climate might have become dark-coloured by the better preservation of dark hair and complexioned individuals during the process of

The tropical countries the persons of dark hair and all with complexions and so far as the negroes

fore as these slight indications go there seems no foundation for the hypothesis that blackness has resulted from the darker and darker individuals having survived better during long exposure to fever generating miasma.

Dr Sharpe remarks ⁶⁵ that a tropical sun which burns and blisters a white skin does not injure a black one at all and as he adds this is not due to habit in the individual for children only six or eight months old are often carried about naked and are not affected. I have been assured by a medical man that some years ago during each summer but not during the winter his hands became marked with light brown patches like although larger than freckles and that these patches were never affected by sun burning whilst the white parts of his skin have on several occasions been much inflamed and blistered. With the lower animals there is also a constitutional difference in liability to the action of the sun between those parts of the skin clothed with white hair and other parts ⁶⁶. Whether the saving of the skin from being thus burnt is of sufficient importance to account for a dark tint having been gradually acquired by man through natural selection I am unable to judge. If it be so we should have to assume that the natives of tropical America have lived there for a much shorter time than the Negroes in Africa or the Papuans in the southern parts of the Malay archipelago just as the lighter coloured Hindoos have resided in India for a shorter time than the darker aborigines of the central and southern parts of the peninsula.

Although with our present knowledge we cannot account for the differences of colour in the races of man through any advantage thus gained or from the direct action of climate

We have seen in the second chapter that the conditions of life affect the development of the bodily frame in a direct manner and that the effects are transmitted. Thus as is generally admitted the European settlers in the United States undergo a slight but extraordinary rapid change of appearance. Their bodies and limbs become elongated and I hear from Col Bernys that during the late war in the United States, good evidence was afforded of this fact by the ridiculous appearance presented by the German regiments when dressed in ready made clothes manufactured for the American market and which were much too long for the men in every way. There is, also, a considerable body of evidence shewing that in the Southern States the house slaves of the third generation present a markedly different appearance from the field slaves ⁶⁶.

If however we look to the races of man as distributed over the world we must infer that their characteristic differences cannot be accounted for by the direct action of different conditions of life even after exposure to them for an enormous period of time. The Esquimaux live exclusively on animal food they are clothed in thick fur and are exposed to intense cold and to prolonged darkness yet they do not differ in any extreme degree from the inhabitants of southern China who live entirely on vegetable food and are exposed almost naked to a hot glaring climate. The unclothed Fuegians live on the marine productions of their inhospitable shores the Botocudos of Brazil wander about the hot forests of the interior and live chiefly on vegetable productions yet these tribes resemble each other so closely that the Fuegians on board the Beagle were mistaken by some Brazilians for Botocudos. The Botocudos again as well as the other inhabitants of tropical America are wholly different from the Negroes who inhabit the opposite shores of the Atlantic are exposed to a nearly similar climate and follow nearly the same habits of life.

Nor can the differences between the race of man be accounted for by the inherited effects of the increased or decreased use of parts except to a quite insignificant degree. Men who habitually live in canoes, may have their legs

⁶⁵ ⁶⁶ Dr Rolfe (*Der Mensch als Tier*, 1865, p. 99) states that the thirty-five Indian families settled in Georgia acquired their colour

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Although with our present knowledge we cannot account for the differences of colour in the races of man through any advantage thus gained or from the direct action of climate yet we must not quite ignore the latter agency for there is good reason to believe that some inherited effect is thus produced⁶⁵

per to be good grounds for this remark. On the other hand Mr Huxley has shown that the

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We have seen in the second chapter that the conditions of life affect the development of the bodily frame in a direct manner and that the

change of appearance Their bodies and limbs become elongated and I hear from Col Berns

man regiments when dressed in ready made clothes manufactured for the American market and which were much too long for the men

present a markedly different appearance from the field slaves⁶⁶

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⁶³ Huxley Med. J. F. h. p. 332 Quatref. p. 128 has collected much evidence on this subject

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presence of the pe — —
inclined to think that it has noted in the hemi-
sphere at least, majority of the brains of this
animal which has put this tumbee figured or
described. The perfoliate part of the second
bridging coil is distinctly less frequent and
has as a rule, been seen in the brain (4)
recorded in this communication. The asymmetrical
arrangement in the coils of the two hemi-
spheres, which previous to Broca's illustration
in their descriptions, is also well illustrated in these
specimens (pp. 8, 9)

It were the presence of the temporo-occipital
or external perpendicular sulcus, mark of distinc-
tion between the higher and lower, the value of
such distinctive characters could be rendered very
difficult by the structure of the brain in the platy-
rhine species. In fact, while the temporo-occipital
sulcus is the most constant of sulci in the catarrhine
Old World species, it is very irregularly developed
in the New World species, it is absent in the smaller
platyrhine rudimentary forms, and more
less of laterated bridging coils in the latter.
A character which is thus variable in the
limits of single groups can have no great taxonomic
value.

It is further established, that the degree of asym-
metry of the coils of the hemispheres, the
human brain is subject to much individual variation
and that, in those individuals of the bushman race
who have been examined the gyri and sulci of the
two hemispheres are considerably less complicated
and more symmetrical than the European brain,
while some individuals of the chimpanzee, though
complexity and asymmetry become notable. This is
particularly the case in the brain of a young male
chimpanzee figured by M. Broca (*L'Année de Physiologie*, p. 163, fig. 11.)

Again, as respects the question of absolute size, it
is well established that the difference between the largest
and the smallest healthy human brain is great,
that the difference between the smallest healthy
human brain and the largest chimpanzee is great.

Moreover there is a curious fact in which the
orang and chimpanzee brains resemble man's,
but in which they differ from the lower species, and
that the presence of the corpora candida—
the Cynomys having but none.

In view of these facts I do not hesitate in thus
yearly to repeat and insist upon the proposition
which I first enunciated in 1863

Professor O. the Anatomy of P. Thiers, M. Nachus,
Proceedings of the Zoological Society 1862.
M. Place Vol. p. 102.

panzee and of man, in most cases
compared with that between the chimpanzee and
that of the lemur.

I will permit me to say that I have referred to Professor
Bischoff's observations on the second part of this letter
in which the first makes the remark that
it is not difficult to find the brains of orang and
lemur are very different and secondly goes on to
assert that, if we compare the brains of
man with that of orang the brains of this
that of chimpanzee of this that of gorilla,
and so of Hylobates, Semnopithecus, Cynocephalus,
Cercopithecus, M. carus, C. bus, C. lithrix,
Lemur, etc., it is not possible to find the
same as the brains of the different degrees of
development of the coils of the brain, as found between
the brains of man and that of an orang chimpanzee.

I will reply firstly that both this assertion
be true or false it has nothing to do with
the proposition enunciated in M. Place's
letter. I have referred to the degree of the
coils alone but not the structure of the whole
brain. If Professor Bischoff had taken the trouble to
refer to p. 96 of the work he criticises, in fact, he
would have found the following passage: "And it
remains a remarkable circumstance that though, so far as we
presently know, the brains of these animals, there is no true
structural break in the series of forms of simian brains,
this hiatus does not lie between man and the man-
like species, but between the lower and the lower simians,
or in other words, between the Old and
New World species and the lemur." Every lemur, which has
three external, etc., has a cerebellum partially visible from above and
its posterior lobe with the coil of the posterior cornu
and hippocampus more or more rudimentary.
Every marmoset, American monkey, Old World
monkey, baboon, manlike species, with the contrary
has a cerebellum entirely hidden, posteriorly by
the cerebral lobes, and possesses large posterior
cornu with the developed hippocampus.

This statement was strictly accurate even if
what was known at the time and it does not
imply that it is more than apparently called
by the bischoffian discovery of the relation of the
development of the posterior lobes to the degree
and in the homologous monkey that and the
exceptional brevity of the posterior lobes in these
species, no one will pretend that their brains, in
the highest degree approach those of the lemur.
And if instead of putting Hippale's of its natural
place as Professor Bischoff most noticeably
does, with the series of animals has been
in the series of the Old World, Hylobates, Troglodytes,
Hylobates, Semnopithecus, Cynocephalus, C. roose-
peltus, M. carus, C. bus, C. lithrix, H. pale Lemur
tenops, I venture to reaffirm that the great break in

ON THE RACES OF MAN

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The first which appears, in fact, is the inner face of the hemisphere (hence doubtless Gratulet, who does not seem to have examined that face—his later, overlooked it), and is either the internal perpendicular (occipito-parietal), or the calcareine ulcus, these two being close together and virtually running into one another to rule the occipito-parietal the earlier of the two.

frontal, parietal, temporal and occipital lobes. There is, however, no clear evidence that one of these constantly appears before the other—and it is remarkable that, in the brain of the period described and figured by Eschscholtz (loc. cit., pp. 212-13 tab. II, fig. 1-3, 4), the antero-temporal sulcus (*arcus temporalis*) characteristic of the ape brain, is as well, if not better developed than the fissure of Rolando, and is much more marked than the proper frontal sulcus.

Taking the facts as they stand, it appears to me that the order of the appearance of the sulci and gyri in the foetal human brain is in perfect harmony with the general doctrine of evolution, and with the view that man has been evolved from some ape-like form, though there can be no doubt that that form, as in many respects, differs from any member of the primate now living.

Van Baer taught us, half a century ago, that, in the course of their development, several animals put on at first, the characters of the greater groups to which they belong, and, by degrees, assume those which restrict them within the limits of their family genus, and species, and he proved, to the satisfaction of all, that no developmental stage of a higher animal is precisely similar to the actual condition of any lower animal. It is quite correct to say that a frog passes through the condition of fish, inasmuch as the period of its life the tadpole has all the characters of fish, and if it went no further we could have it grouped among fishes. But it is equally true that tadpole is very different from any known fish.

In the manner the brain of human foetus, like the fish mouth, may correctly be said to be not only the brain of an ape, but that of an arctopithecine or marmoset-like ape for its hemispheres, with their great posterior lobes and with no sulci but the sylvian and the calcareine present the characteristics found in the group of the arctopithecine primates. But it is equally true as Gratulet remarks, that in its widely open sylvian fissure it differs from the brain of any actual marmoset. No doubt it would be much more similar to the brain of an advanced form of marmoset. But we know nothing

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and, in some cases, the deep calcareine fissure (very shallow in the temporal fissure (*arcus temporalis* of Gratulet)).
It is this fact, taken together with the circumstance that the antero-temporal sulcus is present in such Platyrrhini as the *Saimiri*, which present no traces of sulci on the anterior half of the surface of the cerebral hemispheres, or none that are undoubtedly so far as it goes, as valid evidence in favour of Gratulet's hypothesis, that the posterior sulci appear before the anterior in the brains of the Platyrrhini. But it is by no means follows, that the rule which may hold good for the Platyrrhini, holds for the Cebus. It has no information whatever respecting the development of the brain of the *Cynomorphus*, and, as regards the *Theropithecus*, nothing, but the account of the brain of the gibbon near by, already referred to. At the present moment there is not a shadow of evidence to show that the sulci of *hominoides*, or orang's, brain do not appear in the same order as man's.

Gratulet opens his preface to the phenomenon of the development of the brain of the orang, and says, "I fear I must have forgotten this second maximum by the time he had reached the discussion of the differences between me and pen, the body of his work. No doubt, the critic that should be of the most remarkable contributions to the just understanding of the mammalian brain, which has ever been made would have been the first to submit the sufficiency of his data had he lived to profit by the advance of inquiry. The misfortune is that his conclusions have been employed by persons incompetent to appreciate their value, and, as a result, is in favour of obscurantism."

But it is important to remark that, whether Gratulet was right or wrong, his hypothesis respecting the relative order of appearance of the temporal and frontal sulci, the fact remains that before their temporal or frontal sulci, appear the foetal brain of man presents characters which are found only in the lowest group of the primates (leaving out the lemurs) and that this is exactly what should expect to be the case if man has resulted from the gradual modification of the same form as that from which the lower primates have sprung.

For example M. l'abbé Lecoq in his terrible pamphlet, *Le Darwinisme et l'origine de l'homme*, 1873.

CHAPTER VIII

Zealand the difference would fly get,
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While the sex flows exactly the same, both fall and the male as the sensory locomotive gains more highly developed than those of the male, it may be that the perfect of the sex is dispensable to the male for finding the female but the vast majority of

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could be filled with details on the differences between the sexes in their sensory locomotive and prehensile organs. As however these structures are not more interesting than others adapted for the ordinary purposes of life I shall pass them over almost entirely giving only a few instances under each class.

There are many other structures and instincts which must have been developed through sexual selection—such as the weapons of offence and the means of defence—of the males for fighting with and driving away their rivals—their courage and pugnacity—their various ornaments—their contrivances for producing vocal or instrumental music—and their glands for emitting odours most of these latter structures serving only to allure or excite the female. It is clear that these characters are the result of sexual and not of ordinary selection since unarmed unornamented or unattractive males would succeed equally well in the battle for life and in leaving a numerous progeny but for the presence of better endowed males. We may infer that this would be the case because the females which are unarmed and unornamented are able to survive and procreate their kind. Secondary sexual characters of the kind just referred to will be fully discussed in the following chapters as being in many respects interesting but especially as depending on the will choice and rivalry of the individuals of either sex. When we behold two males fighting for the possession of the female or several male birds displaying their gorgeous plumage and performing strange antics before an assembled body of females we cannot doubt that though led by instinct they know what they are about and consciously exert their mental and bodily powers.

Just as man can improve the breeds of his game cocks by the selection of those birds which are victorious in the cock pit so it appears that the strongest and most vigorous males or those provided with the best weapons have prevailed under nature and have led to the improvement of the natural breed or species. A slight degree of variability leading to some advantage however slight in reiterated deadly contests would suffice for the work of sexual election and it is certain that

an erect and peculiar carriage—so it appears that female birds in a state of nature have by a long selection of the more attractive males added to their beauty or other attractive qualities. No doubt this implies powers of discrimination and taste on the part of the female which will at first appear extremely improbable but by the facts to be adduced hereafter I hope to be able to shew that the females actually have these powers. When however it is said that the lower animals have a sense of beauty it must not be supposed that such sense is comparable with that of a cultivated man with his multiform and complex associated ideas. A more just comparison would be between the taste for the beautiful in animals and that in the lowest savages, who admire and deck themselves with any brilliant glittering or curious object.

From our ignorance on several points, the precise manner in which sexual elections acts is somewhat uncertain. Nevertheless if those naturalists who already believe in the mutability of species will read the following chapters they will I think agree with me that sexual selection has played an important part in the history of the organic world. It is certain that amongst almost all animals there is a struggle between the males for the possession of the female. This fact is so notorious that it would be superfluous to give instance. Hence the females have the opportunity of electing one out of several males on the supposition that their mental capacity suffices for the exertion of a choice. In many cases peculiar circumstances tend to make the struggle between the males particularly severe. Thus the males of our migratory birds generally arrive at their places of breeding before the females so that many males are ready to contend for each female. I am informed by Mr Jenner Weir that the bird catchers assert that this is invariably the case with the nightingale and blackcap and with respect to the latter he can himself confirm the statement.

Mr Swayland of Brighton has been in the habit, during the last forty years, of catching our migratory birds on their first arrival and he has never known the females of any species to arrive before their males. During one spring he shot thirty nine males of *Ray's vantage* (*Budjtes rari*) before he saw a single female. Mr Gould has ascertained by the dissection of those snipes which arrive the first in this country that the males come before the females. And the like holds good with most of

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the latter. The courtship of animals is by no means so simple and short an affair as might be thought. The females are most excited by, or prefer pairing with, the more ornamented males, or those which are the

the proportional numbers at birth, but no records have been especially kept for this purpose. By indirect means, however, I have collected a considerable

more vigorous and lively males, and this has in some cases been confirmed by actual observation. Thus the more vigorous females which are the first to breed will have the choice of many males, and though they may not always select the strongest or best armed, they will select those which are vigorous and well armed, and in other respects the most attractive. Both sexes, therefore, of such early pairs would as above explained, have an advantage over others in rearing offspring, and this apparently has sufficed during a long course of generations to add not only to the strength and fighting powers of the males, but likewise to their various ornaments or other attractions.

In the converse and much rarer case of the males selecting particular females, it is plain that those which were the most vigorous and had conquered others, would have the freest choice, and it is almost certain that they would select vigorous as well as attractive females. Such pairs would have an advantage in rearing offspring, more especially if the

The same principles would apply if each sex preferred and selected certain individuals of the opposite sex, supposing that they selected not only the more attractive, but likewise the more vigorous individuals.

Numerical Proportion of the Two Sexes.—I have remarked that sexual selection would be a simple affair if the males were considerably more numerous than the females. Hence I was led to investigate, as far as I could, the proportions between the two sexes of as many animals as possible, but the materials are scanty. I will here give only a brief abstract of the results, retaining the detail for a supplementary discussion, so as not to interfere with the course of my argument. Domesticated animals alone afford the means of ascertaining

births of race horses have been recorded during twenty-one years, and the male births were to the female births as 99 to 100. In greyhounds the inequality is greater than with any other animal, for out of 688 births during twelve years, the male births were to the female as 1101 to 100. It is however, in some degree doubtful whether it is safe to infer that the proportion would be the same under natural conditions as under domestication, for slight and unknown differences in the conditions affect the proportion of the sexes. Thus with mankind, the male births in England are as 1045, in Russia as 1089, and with the Jews of Livonia as 110 to 100 female births. But I shall recur to this curious point of the excess of male births in the supplement to this chapter. At the Cape of Good Hope, however, male children of European extraction have been born during several years in the proportion of between 90 and 99 to 100 female children.

For our present purpose we are concerned with the proportions of the sexes, not only at birth, but also at maturity, and this ad is another element of doubt, for it is a well ascertained fact that with man the number of males dying before or during birth, and during the first two years of infancy, is considerably larger than that of females. So it almost certainly is with male lambs, and probably with some other animals. The males of some species kill one another by fighting, or they drive one another about until they become greatly emaciated. They must also be often exposed to various dangers, whilst wandering about in eager search for the females. In many kinds of fish the males are much smaller than the female, and they are killed often to be devoured by the latter, or by other fish. The females of some birds appear to suffer less than the males, they are also liable to be devoured on their nest, whilst in charge of their young. With insect the female larva are often larger than the male, and would consequently be more likely to be devoured. In some cases the male females are less active and less agile in their movements than the males, and could not escape so well from danger. Hence with animals in a state of

nature, we must rely on the results of the order of the proportion of the sexes at maturity and this is but little trustworthy except where the inequality is strongly marked. Nevertheless, as far as a judgment can be formed, we may conclude from the facts given in the supplement that the males of some few mammals, of man, birds, of some fish and insects, are considerably more numerous than the females.

The proportion between the sexes fluctuates slightly during successive years thus with race-horses, for every 100 mares born the foal-broods varied from 101 to 90 in another year and were bound from 116.5 to 90.3. But had large numbers been tabulated throughout an immense time than England, these fluctuations would probably have disappeared and this is where we would hardly suffice to lead to effects of sexual selection in a state of nature. Nevertheless, the case of some few wild animals, as shown in the supplement, the proportions seem to fluctuate during different seasons in different localities. It might be observed that any advantage gained during certain years or in certain localities by those males which were able to conquer the females, or were the most attractive to the females, would probably be transmitted to their offspring, and would not be equalled by the limited duration of the succeeding seasons when, from the equality of the sexes, every male was able to procure a female through more attractive males previously produced would still have the last as good chance of leaving offspring as the weak or less attractive.

Polygamy—The practice of polygamy leads to the same results as would follow from an actual inequality in the number of the sexes for each male secures two or more females, many males cannot pair and the latter as well as the weaker less attractive individuals. Many mammals and some few birds are polygamous, but with animals belonging to the lower classes I have found no evidence of this habit. The intellectual powers of such animals are perhaps not sufficient to lead them to collect and guard a harem of females. That some relation exists between polygamy and the development of secondary sexual characters appears early certain and this supports the view that numerical preponderance of male would be eminently

favourable to the action of sexual selection. Nevertheless, many animals, which are strictly monogamous, especially birds, display strongly marked secondary sexual characters whilst some few animals, which are polygamous, do not display such characters.

We will first briefly run through the mammals, and then turn to birds. The gnu seems to be polygamous, and the male differs considerably from the female so it is with some baboons, which live in herds containing twice as many adult females as males. In South America the *Myotis caray* presents well marked sexual differences, in colour beard and vocal organs and the male generally lives with two or three wives the male of the *Cebus capucinus* differs somewhat from the female and appears to be polygamous.¹⁶ Little is known in the lead with respect to most the monkeys, but some species are strictly monogamous. The ruminants are mainly polygamous, and the present sexual differences more frequent than almost any other group of mammals thus bold good, especially in their weapons, but also in their characters. Most deer, cattle and sheep are polygamous as are most antelopes, though some are monogamous. Andrew Smith, in speaking of the antelopes of South Africa, says that in herds of about a dozen there was rarely more than one mature male. The Asiatic *Indopos* appears to be the most monogamous in the world. Lillias states that the male drives away all rivals, and collects a herd of about a hundred females and kills the other males. The male is hornless and has soft hair but does not otherwise differ much from the male. The wild horse of the Falkland Islands and of the western states of America is polygamous but, except in his greater size and in the proportions of his body differs but little from the female. The wild boar presents well marked secondary characters, in his great tusks and some other points. In Europe and in India he leads a solitary life except during the breeding season but as is believed by Mr W Elliot, who

¹⁶ Andrew Smith, *Illustrations of the Zoology of S. Africa*, 1849 pl. 29 the baboon. On his *Anatomy of the tribe* (vol. iii, 1868, p. 633) in a table showing inadequately such species of antelopes are gregarious.

has had many opportunities in India of observing this animal he consorts at this season with several females. Whether this holds good in Europe is doubtful but it is supported by some evidence. The adult male Indian elephant, like the boar, passes much of his time in solitude but as Dr Campbell states when with others. It is rare to find more than one male with a whole herd of females the larger males expelling or killing the smaller and weaker ones. The male differs from the female in his immense tusks greater size strength and endurance so great is the difference in these respects that the males when caught are valued at one fifth more than the females.¹² The sexes of other pachydermatous animals differ very little or not at all and as far as known they are not polygamists. Nor have I heard of any species in the Orders of Cheiroptera, Edentata, Insectivora and rodents being polygamous excepting that amongst the rodents the common rat according to some rat catchers lives with several females. Nevertheless the two sexes of some sloths (Edentata) differ in the character and colour of certain patches of hair on their shoulders.¹³ And many kinds of bats (Cheiroptera) present well marked sexual differences chiefly in the males possessing odoriferous glands and pouches and by their being of a lighter colour.¹⁴ In the great order of rodents as far as I can learn the sexes rarely differ and when they do so it is but slightly in the tint of the fur.

As I hear from Sir Andrew Smith the lion in South Africa sometimes lives with a single female but generally with more and in one case was found with as many as five females so that he is polygamous. As far as I can discover he is the only polygamist amongst all the terrestrial Carnivora and he alone presents well marked sexual characters. If however we turn to the marine Carnivora, as we shall hereafter see the case is widely different for many species of seals offer extraordinary sexual differences and they are eminently polygamous. Thus according to Lecon the male sea elephant of the southern ocean always possesses several females and the sea lion of Forster is said to be surrounded by from twenty to thirty females. In the North the male sea

bear of Steller is accompanied by even a greater number of females. It is an interesting fact, as Dr Gill remarks¹⁵ that in the monogamous species or those living in small communities there is little difference in size between the male and females in the social species, or rather those of which the males have harems, the males are vastly larger than the females.

Amongst birds many species the sexes of which differ greatly from each other are certainly monogamous. In Great Britain we see well marked sexual differences, for instance, in the wild-duck which pairs with a single female the common blackbird and the bullfinch which is said to pair for life. I am informed by Mr Wallace that the like is true of chattering or Cotingidae of South America, and of many other birds. In several groups I have not been able to discover whether the species are polygamous or monogamous. Lesson says that birds of paradise so remarkable for their sexual differences are polygamous, but Mr Wallace doubts whether he had sufficient evidence. Mr Salvin tells me he has been led to believe that humming birds are

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The Gallinaceæ exhibit almost as strongly marked sexual differences as birds of paradise or humming birds and many of the species are as is well known polygamous there being strictly monogamous. What a contrast is presented between the sexes of the polygamous

black cock differ greatly from the females whilst the sexes of the monogamous red grouse and ptarmigan differ very little. In the Cuckoos, except amongst the bustards few species offer strongly marked sexual differences, and

¹² Th. Lared Seals, *American Naturalist* vol. i. J. N. 1871.

¹³ *The Ibis*
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¹⁴ *Ibis* d. n.
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Dr Gray in *Annals of the Glasgow Natural History* 1871 p. 302.

See Dr Dobson's cell paper *Proceedings of the Zoological Society* 1873 p. 241.

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¹² The Eared Seals, American Naturalist, vol. 1, p. 1871.

¹³ The Sea Elephant, 1861 p. 133. The red grouse and ptarmigan differ very little. In the Curcæ, except amongst the bustards few species offer strongly marked sexual differences, and

¹⁴ The Sea Elephant, 1861 p. 133.

¹⁵ The Sea Elephant, 1861 p. 133.

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² M m m a l n d B d s f E F l o r i d a p p 234 230
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oped and this shews that the male is the more active member in the courtship of the sexes¹⁹

The female on the other hand with the rarest exceptions is less eager than the male. As the illustrious Hunter²⁰ long ago observed she generally requires to be courted she is coy and may often be seen endeavouring for a long time to escape from the male. Every observer of the habits of animals will be able to call to mind instances of this kind. It is shown by various facts given hereafter and by the results fairly attributable to sexual selection that the female though comparatively passive generally exerts some choice and accepts one male in preference to others. Or she may accept as appearances would sometimes lead us to believe not the male which is the most attractive to her but the one which is the least distasteful. The exertion of some choice on the part of the female seems a law almost as general as the eagerness of the male.

We are naturally led to enquire why the male in so many and such distinct classes has become more eager than the female so that he searches for her and plays the more active part in courtship. It would be no advantage and some loss of power if each sex searched for the other but why should the male almost always be the seeker? The ovules of plants after fertilisation have to be nourished for a time hence the pollen is necessarily brought to the female organs—being placed on the stigma by means of insects or the wind or by the spontaneous movements of the stamens and in the Algae &c. by the locomotive power of the antherozooids. With lowly organised aquatic animals permanently affixed to the same spot and having their sexes separate the male element is invariably brought to the female and of this we can see the reason for even if the ova were detached before fertilisation and did not require subsequent nourishment or protection there would yet be greater

difficulty in transporting them than the male element because being larger than the latter they are produced in far smaller numbers so that many of the lower animals are in this

natural that any of their descendants which rose in the scale and became locomotive should retain the same habit and they would approach the female as closely as possible in order not to risk the loss of the fertilising element in a long passage of it through the water. With some few of the lower animals, the females alone are fixed and the males of these must be the seekers. But it is difficult to understand why the males of species of which the progenitors were primordially free should invariably have acquired the habit of approaching the females instead of being approached by them. But in all cases in order that the males should seek efficiently it would be necessary that they should be endowed with strong passions and the acquirement of such passions would naturally follow from the more eager leaving a larger number of offspring than the less eager.

The great eagerness of the males has thus indirectly led to their much more frequently developing secondary sexual characters than the females. But the development of such characters would be much aided if the males were more liable to vary than the females—as I concluded they were—after a long study of domesticated animals. Von Nathusius, who has had very wide experience is strongly of the same opinion²¹. Good evidence also in favour of this conclusion can be produced by a comparison of the two sexes in mankind. During the Novara expedition²² a vast number of measurements was made of various parts of the body in different races and the men were found in almost every case to present a greater range of variation than the women but I shall have to recur to this subject in a future chapter.

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LAWS OF INHERITANCE

th la of inh ntance as far as th are known. Tw d tinct l m ts are incl d d under th term inh ntance"—th trans mission, and th d lopm nt f haract rs b t as these g rally go t th th d tincti n is oft looked W see ths distn ti n in those charact rs which are transmitted through th arly ears f lif b t are d l ped nly

both sexes, tho gh d loped in lo Th t th y are prese t both sexes, is manifest wh t species, ha ving strongly marked

to g e one strik g instance With bees the poll n-collecting apparatus is used by the f mal alone f r g th ring pollen f r the larv t n mo t of the pecies it a partial de kped n the males t w l m it is quite useless, and it is perfectly de eloped in the males of *Bombu o the h* ! I bee "Is ot a single ther hymenopterous insect not e en th wasp which is closely all ed to the bee is provided with pollen-collecting ppar t s, we ha e n grounds for pposi g th t male bees prim rially collected pollen as w ll as th f males altho gh we have some reason to pect that male mammals prim rially u kled th r young as w ll as th f males. Lastl in all cases of re rsu n, charact rs re transm tted through t o, three, or many m re g erati ns, and are th n de loped under certain nkn wn f rable cond ti ns. Tl s important d t t n between transmissi on and d lopm t will be best h pt u mind l v th aid of th h poll esis of pang nesis. Accord g to ths h poll s, r v unit cell f th bod throws off gemmules r unde loped t ms, which are t ansmitted t the offspr g f both sexes, and are multiplied by self divis n. Th s m y remain und vel ped d ing th arly ars of l f o d n g cress e g erati ns and th r d lopment t units o cells, lik th sex from which th y re de ried d pends th affi ty fo and mon w th th units r cells pre usly de f ped in th d ord r f growth.

act rs propo to th male are occasi nally d loped in th f mal wh n sh grow ld o becomes diseased as, f instance whe the comm h assumes th flowing tail feath rs, hackles, comb, purs, o ce and n p g nact f th cock. Co rsel th sam th g vid t, m re less plainl with castrated males. Again, nd pend tl f ld ag disease charact rs are occasi nall transm rred from th mal t th f m l as wh n n ce tai breed f th f w l, purs regularl ppear th g and health f males. B t truth th are simpl d loped in th f mal f in ev r breed ach d tail in th ture f th p transm tted thro gh th f male t h mal offspring. Man ases will h readt be g n, wh re th f mal xhib ts, more o less perfectl haract rs propo to th m l n hom th must h been first d l ped, and th transm rred t th f mal. Tl conse case of the first dev lopm t of char act rs th f mal and of transm rce to th m le is less freq ent t will th ref re be well

th hand, a n w haracte ppears at maturity o nd ring ld g t t ads to re ppear in th ff pri g t th same ad nced age. When d riat ns from ths rule occur th transm tted characters in ch fit n ppear bef re than aft th corresponding g ts I h ve dw lt n ths bject sufficiently in an th n l, I w ll h re merely g two r three instances, f th sak f recalling th bject to th read mind In se al breed

nounced secondary sexual characters such as brighter colours greater size strength or pugnacity With birds there has sometimes been a complete transposition of the ordinary characters proper to each sex the females having become the more eager in courtship the males remaining comparatively passive but apparently selecting the more attractive females as we may infer from the results Certain hen birds have thus been rendered more highly coloured or otherwise ornamented as well as more powerful and pugnacious than the cocks these characters being transmitted to the female offspring alone

It may be suggested that in some cases a double process of election has been carried on that the males have selected the more attractive females and the latter the more attractive males This process however though it might lead to the modification of both sexes would not make the one sex different from the other unless indeed their tastes for the beautiful differed but this is a supposition too improbable to be worth considering in the case of any animal excepting man There are however many animals in which the sexes resemble each other both being furnished with the same ornaments which analogy would lead us to attribute to the agency of sexual selection In such cases it may be suggested with more plausibility that there has been a double or mutual process of sexual selection the more vigorous and precocious females selecting the more attractive and vigorous males the latter rejecting all except the more attractive females But from what we know of the habits of animals this view is hardly probable for the male is generally eager to pair with any female It is more probable that the ornaments common to both sexes were acquired by one sex generally the male and then transmitted to the offspring of both sexes If indeed during a lengthened period the males of any species were greatly to exceed the females in number and then during another lengthened period but under different conditions the reverse were to occur a double but not simultaneous, process of sexual selection might easily be carried on by which the two sexes might be rendered widely different

We shall hereafter see that many animals exist, of which neither sex is brilliantly coloured or provided with peculiar ornament and yet the members of both sexes or of one alone have probably acquired single colours such as white or black through sexual selection

The absence of bright tints or other ornaments may be the result of variations of the right kind never having occurred or of the animals themselves having preferred plain black or white Obscure tints have often been developed through natural selection for the sake of protection and the acquirement through sexual election of conspicuous colours appears to have been some times checked from the danger thus incurred But in other cases the males during long ages may have struggled together for the possession of the female and yet no effect will have been produced unless a larger number of offspring were left by the more successful males to inherit their superiority than by the less successful and thus, as previously shewn depends on many complex contingencies

Sexual election acts in a less rigorous manner than natural selection The latter produces its effects by the life or death at all ages of the more or less successful individuals. Death indeed not rarely ensues from the conflicts of rival male But generally the less successful male merely fails to obtain a female or obtains a retarded and less vigorous female later in the season or if polygamous obtains fewer females so that they leave fewer less vigorous,

of advantageous modification in relation to certain special purpose but in regard to structures adapted to make one male victorious over another either in fighting or in charming the female there is no definite limit to the amount of advantageous modification so that as long as the proper variations arise the work of sexual selection will go on This circumstance may partly account for the frequent and extraordinary amount of variability presented by secondary sexual characters.

injury either by expending too much of their vital powers, or by exposing them to any great danger The development, however of certain structures—of the horn for instance in certain stags—has been carried to a wonderful pitch extreme and in some cases to an extreme such as far as the general conditions of life are concerned must be highly injurious to the male From this fact we learn that the advantages which favoured males derive from

of the fowl the down covered chickens the young birds in their first true plumage and the adults differ greatly from one another as well as from their common parent form the *Gallus ban/na* and these characters are faithfully transmitted by each breed to their offspring at the corresponding periods of life For instance the chickens of spangled Hamburgs whilst covered with down have a few dark spots on the head and rump but are not striped longitudinally as in many other breeds in their first true plumage they are beautifully pencilled that is each feather is transversely marked by numerous dark bars but in their

been transmitted to three distinct periods of life The pigeon offers a more remarkable case because the aboriginal parent species does not undergo any change of plumage with advancing age excepting that at maturity the breast becomes more iridescent yet there are breeds which do not acquire their characteristic colours until they have moulted two three or four times and these modifications of plumage are regularly transmitted

Inheritance at corresponding Seasons of the Year—With animals in a state of nature innumerable instances occur of characters appearing periodically at different seasons We see this in the horns of the stag and in the fur of arctic animals which becomes thick and white during the winter Many birds acquire bright colours and other decorations during the breeding season alone Pallas states² that

marked changes of colour that is from brownish cream-colour or reddish brown to a perfect white in several ponies in England Although I do not know that this tendency to change the colour of the coat during different seasons is transmitted yet it probably is so as all shades

of colour are strongly inherited by the horse Nor is this form of inheritance as limited by the seasons more remarkable than its limitation by age or sex

Inheritance as Limited by Sex—The equal transmission of characters to both sexes is the commonest form of inheritance at least with those animals which do not present strongly marked sexual differences and indeed with many of these But characters are somewhat commonly transferred exclusively to that sex in which they first appear Ample evidence on this head has been advanced in my work on *Variation under Domestication* but a few instances may here be given There are breeds of the sheep and goat in which the horns of the male differ greatly in shape from those of the female and these differences acquired under domestication are regularly transmitted to the same sex As a rule it is the females alone in cats which are tortoise shell the corresponding colour in the males being rusty red With most breeds of the fowl the characters proper to each sex are transmitted to the same sex alone So general is this form of transmission that it is an anomaly when variations in certain breeds are transmitted equally to both sexes There are also certain sub-breeds of the fowl in which the males can hardly be distinguished from one another whilst the females differ considerably in colour The sexes of the pigeon in the parent species do not differ in any external character nevertheless in certain domesticated breeds the male is coloured differently from the female³ The wattle in the English carrier pigeon and the crop in the pouter are more highly developed in the male than in the female and although these characters have been gained through long continued selection by man the slight differences between the sexes are wholly due to the form of inheritance which has prevailed for they have arisen not from but rather in opposition to the wish of the breeder

Most of our domestic races have been formed by the accumulation of many slight variations and as some of the successive steps have been transmitted to one sex alone and some to both sexes, we find in the different breeds of the same species all gradations between great

² *Naturalist*, vol. i. p. 51. Also vol. ii. p. 71 for a general discussion on inheritance as limited by sex

which the males alone are horned and also the young of a closely-allied species, the land (t. oryx) in which both sexes are horned. Now it is in strict conformity with our rule that in the young male koodoo, although ten months old, the horns were remarkably small, commencing the size ultimately attained by them whilst in the young male land, although only three months old, the horns were already very much larger than in the koodoo. It is also a noticeable fact that in the pronghorned antelope only a few of the females, about one in five, have horns, and these are in rudimentary state, though sometimes about four inches long, so that as far as concerns the possession of horns by the males alone, this species is in an intermediate condition, and the horns do not appear until about five or six months after birth. This before in comparison with that little known of the dolopium of the horns in other antelopes, and from what we do know with respect to the horns of deer, cattle, &c., those of the pronghorned antelope appear at an intermediate period of life,—that is, not very early as in cattle and sheep, nor very late, as in the larger deer and antelopes. The horns of sheep, goats, and cattle which are well developed in both sexes, though not quite equal in size, can be felt, or even seen, at birth or soon afterwards. Our rule however seems to fail in some breeds of sheep, for instance in rams, in which the rams alone are horned for I cannot find on enquiry that the horns are developed late in life in this breed than in ordinary sheep in which both sexes are horned. But in the domesticated sheep the presence or absence of horns is not a firmly

fixed character for a certain proportion of the rams bears small horns, and some of the rams are hornless, and in most breeds hornless ones are occasionally produced.

Dr W. Marshall has lately made a special study of the protuberances so common on the heads of birds, and he comes to the following conclusion,—that with those species in which they are confined to the males, they are developed late in life whereas with those species in which they are common to both sexes, they are developed at an early period. Thus certainly a striking confirmation of my law of inheritance.

In most of the species of the splendid family of the pheasants, the males differ conspicuously from the females, and they acquire their ornaments at a rather late period of life. The reared pheasant (*Coscorophus auratus*) however offers a remarkable exception, for both sexes possess the fine caudal plumes, the large ear tufts and the crimson crest about the head. I find that all these characters appear very early in life in accordance with the rule. The adult male can however be distinguished from the adult female by the presence of spurs and conformably with our rule these do not begin to be developed before the age of six months, as I am assured by Mr Bartlett, and not at this age the two sexes can hardly be distinguished. The male and female peacock differ conspicuously from each other in almost every part of their plumage, except in the elegant head-crest, which is common to both sexes and thus developed very early in life, long before the other ornaments, which are confined to the male. The wild duck offers an analogous case for the beautiful green speculum on the wings is common to both sexes, though duller and somewhat smaller in the female and thus developed early in life, whilst the curled tail-feathers and other ornaments of

Über die knöchernen Schädelschädel der Vögel in der Niederland. Archiv für Zoologie B.

Asiaticus americana. I have to thank Dr. C. A. B. for information with respect to the horns of the female see also his paper in *Proceedings of the Zoological Society* 1866, p. 109. Also Owen, *Dictionary of Ornithology*, vol. ii., p. 67.

I have been assured that the horns of the sheep north Wales can always be felt, and are sometimes even seen at birth. Youatt says (1834 p. 274) that the presence of the horns in cattle penetrates the crust at birth, and that the horny matter is soon formed.

I am greatly indebted to Prof. Victor Carus for his valuable inquiries for me from the highest authorities with respect to the merino sheep of Saxony (to the Gunder coast of Africa there is however a breed of sheep in which, as with merinos, the rams alone bear horns and Mr Woodhouse informs me that he has observed him, a young ram, born on Feb. 10th, first showed horns on March 6th, so that in this instance in conformity with the dolopium of the horns occurred at a later period of life than in Welsh sheep, in which both sexes are horned.

the latter species they would have been developed earlier in life than in the common peacock, but Mr Elgt of Amsterdam informs me that the young birds of the previous year of both species, compared April 23rd, 1869, there was no difference in the development of the spurs. The spurs, however were as yet represented merely by slight knobs or elevations. I presume that I should have been informed of any difference in the rate of development had been observed subsequently.

gemmules (if I may again use the language of pangenesis) which are cast off from each varying part in the one sex would be much more likely to possess the proper affinities for uniting with the tissues of the same sex and thus be coming developed than with those of the opposite sex.

I was first led to infer that a relation of this kind exists from the fact that whenever and in whatever manner the adult male differs from the adult female he differs in the same manner from the young of both sexes. The generality of this fact is quite remarkable it holds good with almost all mammals birds amphibians and fishes also with many crustaceans spiders and some few insects such as certain Orthoptera and Libellule. In all these cases the variations through the accumulation of which the male acquired his proper masculine characters must have occurred at a somewhat late period of life otherwise the young males would have been similarly characterised and conformably with our rule the variations are transmitted to and developed in the adult males alone. When on the other hand the adult male closely resembles the young of both sexes (these with rare exceptions being alike) he generally resembles the adult female and in most of these cases the variations through which the young and old acquired their present characters probably occurred according to our rule during youth. But there is here room for doubt for characters are sometimes transferred to the offspring at an earlier age than that at which they first appeared in the parents so that the parents may have varied when adult and have transferred their characters to their offspring whilst young. There are moreover many animals in which the two sexes closely resemble each other and yet both differ from their young and here the characters of the adults must have been acquired late in life nevertheless these characters in apparent contradiction to our rule are transferred to both sexes. We must not however overlook the possibility or even probability of successive variations of the same nature occurring under exposure to similar conditions simultaneously in both sexes at a rather late period of life and in this case the variations would be transferred to the offspring of both sexes at a corresponding late age and there would then be no real contradiction to the rule that variations occurring late in life are transferred exclusively to the sex in which they first appeared. This latter rule seems to

hold true more generally than the second one namely that variations which occur in either sex early in life tend to be transferred to both sexes. As it was obviously impossible even to estimate in how large a number of cases throughout the animal kingdom these two propositions held good it occurred to me to investigate some striking or crucial instances and to rely on the result.

An excellent case for investigation is afforded by the deer family. In all the species, but one the horns are developed only in the males though certainly transmitted through the female and capable of abnormal development in them. In the reindeer on the other hand the female is provided with horn so that in this species the horns ought according to our rule to appear early in life long before the two sexes are mature and have come to

sex alone in which they first appeared in the progenitor of the whole family. Now in seven species belonging to distinct sections of the family and inhabiting different regions in which the stags alone bear horns I find that the horns first appear at periods varying from nine months after birth in the roebuck to ten twelve or even more months in the stags of the six other and larger species. But with the reindeer the case is widely different for as I hear from Prof Nilsson who kindly made enquiries for me in Lapland the horns appear in the young animals within four or five weeks after birth and at the same time in both sexes. So that here we have a structure developed at a most unusually early age in one species of the family and likewise common to both sexes in this one species alone.

In several kinds of antelopes only the males are provided with horns whilst in the greater number both sexes bear horns. With respect to the period of development Mr Blyth informs me that there was at one time in the Zoological Gardens a young koodoo (*A. episceros*) of

I am indebted to Mr C. P. L. for the following information concerning the roebuck.

also I have seen a roebuck in the London Zoo. 1868 pp 921 1254 of the C. P. L. and C. P. L.

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Das G nse der T benzu ht 1837 ss. 21 24 F
th case of th treaked pigeons, see D Ch p 18.
Le P s Voyageu Belg 1855 p 87

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the male are developed late

the characters follow our two rules in their order of development

As most insects emerge from the pupal state in a mature condition it is doubtful whether the period of development can determine the transference of their characters to one or to both sexes. But we do not know that the coloured scales for instance in two species of butterflies in one of which the sexes differ in colour whilst in the other they are alike are developed at the same relative age in the cocoon. Nor do we know whether

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so improbable as it may at first appear for with the Orthoptera which assume their adult state not by a single metamorphosis but by a succession of moults the young males of some species at first resemble the females and acquire their distinctive masculine characters only at a later moult. Strictly analogous cases occur at the successive moults of certain male crustaceans

We have as yet considered the transference of characters relatively to their period of development only in species in a natural state we will now turn to domesticated animals and first touch on monstrosities and diseases. The presence of supernumerary digits and the absence of certain phalanges must be determined at an early embryonic period—the tendency to profuse bleeding is at least congenital as is probably colour blindness—yet these peculiarities and other similar ones are often limited in their transmission to one sex

the male are developed late

the male are developed late

the male are developed late

the male are developed late

the male are developed late

the male are developed late

so that the rule that characters developed at an early period tend to be transmitted to both sexes, here wholly fails. But this rule as before remarked does not appear to be nearly so general as the converse one namely that characters which appear late in life in one sex are transmitted exclusively to the same sex. From the fact of the above abnormal peculiarities becoming attached to one sex long before the sexual functions are active we may infer that there must be some difference between the sexes at an extremely early age. With respect to sexually limited diseases we know too little of the period at which they originate to draw any safe conclusion. Gout however seems to fall under our rule for it is generally caused by intemperance during manhood and is transmitted from the father to his sons in a much more marked manner than to his daughters

In the various domestic breeds of sheep goats and cattle the males differ from their respective females in the shape or development of their horns forehead mane dewlap tail and hump on the shoulders and these peculiarities in accordance with our rule are not fully developed until a rather late period of life. The sexes of dogs do not differ except that in certain breeds especially in the Scotch deerhound the male is much larger and heavier than the female and as we shall see in a future chapter the male goes on increasing in size to an unusually late period of life which according to rule will account for his increased size being transmitted to his male offspring alone. On the other hand the tortoise shell colour which is confined to female cats, is quite distinct at birth and this case violates the rule. There is a breed of pigeons in which the males alone are streaked with black and the streaks can be detected even in the newlings but they become more conspicuous at each successive moult, so that this case partly opposes and partly supports the rule. With the English carrier and pouter pigeons the full development of the rattle at the crop occurs rather late in life and conformably with the rule these characters are transmitted in full perfection to the males alone. The following cases perhaps come within the class previously alluded to in which both sexes have varied in the same manner at a rather late period of life and have consequently transmitted their new characters to both sexes at a corresponding late period and if so these cases are not opposed to our rule—there exist undoubtedly of the

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had it is transferred to both sexes. In the black whistling finch, the difference in color with the so-called "blue-breed" of the finch, which the females are transposed, is noted in the stripes, both sexes and the chicks are colored in early the same manner. The laced plumage of the Selkirk bantam, the same both sexes, and

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d l p m t th mal t f us al size
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of which an unproved legend began a little character is stated to be common to both sexes, so that the hens, from the tremendous quantity of eggs really hatched in separate places. With the fish breeds the brood protuberance of the hump which supports the rest; partly developed beneath the chin and the rest of the body are themselves soon begun to grow though first feebly and then the red head of the first series are characterized by a great brood protuberance and an immense crest.

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Das Ganze der T. bern. M 1837 ss. 21 24 F
the case of the streaked p. green, see D. Chapuis,
Le P. g. & yagru. Belge, 1835 p. 87

so are the causes which induce and govern variability. The variations thus induced are preserved and accumulated by sexual selection which is in itself an extremely complex affair depending as it does on the ardour in love the courage and the rivalry of the males, as well as on the powers of perception the taste and will of the female. Sexual selection will also be largely dominated by natural selection tending towards the general welfare of the species. Hence the manner in which the individuals of either or both sexes have been affected through sexual selection cannot fail to be complex in the highest degree.

When variations occur late in life in one sex and are transmitted to the same sex at the same age the other sex and the young are left unmodified. When they occur late in life but are transmitted to both sexes at the same age the young alone are left unmodified. Variations however may occur at any period of life in one sex or in both and be transmitted to both sexes at all ages and then all the individuals of the species are similarly modified. In the following chapters it will be seen that all these cases frequently occur in nature.

Sexual selection can never act on any animal before the age for reproduction arrives. From the great eagerness of the male it has generally acted on this sex and not on the females. The males have thus become provided with weapons for fighting with their rivals with organs for discovering and securely holding the female and for exciting or charming her. When the sexes differ in the respects it is also as we have seen an extremely general law that the adult male differs more or less from the young male and we may conclude from this fact that the successive variations by which the adult male became modified did not generally occur much before the age for reproduction. Whenever one or many of the variations occurred early in life the young males would partake more or less of the characters of the adult males and differences of this kind between the old and young males may be observed in many species of animals.

It is probable that young male animals have often tended to vary in a manner which would not only have been of no use to them at an early age but would have been actually injurious—as by acquiring bright colours which would render them conspicuous to their enemies or by acquiring structures, such as great horns, which would expend much vital force in their development. Variations of this kind

occurring in the young males would also certainly be eliminated through natural selection. With the adult and experienced males, on the other hand the advantages derived from the acquisition of such characters, would more than counterbalance some exposure to danger and some loss of vital force.

As variations which give to the male a better chance of conquering other males or of finding securing or charming the opposite sex would if they happened to arise in the female be of no service to her they would not be preserved in her through sexual selection. We have also good evidence with some treated animals that variations of all kinds are if not carefully selected soon lost through intercrossing and accidental deaths. Consequently in a state of nature if variations of the above kind chanced to arise in the female line and be transmitted exclusively in this line they would be extremely liable to be lost. If however the females varied and transmitted their newly acquired characters to their offspring of both sexes the characters which were advantageous to the males would be preserved by them through sexual selection and the two sexes would in consequence be modified in the same manner although such characters were of no use to the females but I shall hereafter have to recur to the more intricate contingencies. Lastly the females may acquire and apparently have often acquired by transference characters from the male sex.

As variations occurring later in life and transmitted to one sex alone have incessantly been taken advantage of and accumulated through sexual selection in relation to the reproduction of the species therefore it appears, at first sight, an unaccountable fact that similar variations have not frequently been accumulated through natural selection in relation to the ordinary habits of life. If this had occurred the two sexes would often have been differently modified for the sake for instance of capturing prey or of escaping from danger. Differences of this kind between the two sexes do occasionally occur especially in the lower classes. But this implies that at the two sexes follow different habits in their struggles for existence which is a rare circumstance with the higher animals. The case however is widely different with the reproductive function in which respect the sexes necessarily differ for variations in structure which are related to these functions have often proved of value to one sex and from having arisen at a late period

PRINCIPLES OF SEXUAL SELECTION

CHAP. VIII

old has been attempted in sexual
and such animals, thus placed and trans-
mitted has given rise to secondary sexual
characters.

In the following chapters, I shall treat of the
secondary sexual characters in animals of all
classes, and shall endeavour in each case to
apply the principles placed in the present
chapter. The lowest classes will contain a few
fresh returns but the higher animals, pec-
cially birds, must be treated at considerable
length. It should be remembered that for

100 but during this time in
times in the department, and six times in
another that the female birth exceeded
the male. In Russia the average proportion is
as high as 108.9 and in Philadelphia in the
United States as 110.5 to 100. The average for
Europe deduced by Biche from about
seventy million births, is 106 males to 100
females. On the other hand with white children
born at the Cape of Good Hope, the propor-
tion of females is so low as fifty to a hundred
males between 90 and 99 males for
every 100 females. It is a singular fact that
with Jews the proportion of male births is
decidedly larger than with Christians. In
Prussia the proportion is as 113 Breslau as
114 and in London as 120 to 100 the Chris-
tian births these countries being the same as
usual for instance in London as 104 to 100.

Prof Fyfe remarks that a still greater pro-
portion of males would be noticed with in-
distinguishable both sexes in equal proportion
in the womb and during birth. But the fact is,
that for every 100 still born males, we have
in several countries from 134.6 to 144.9 still
born males. During the first four years of
life also, more male children die than fe-
male. For example in England during the first
year 126 boys died for every 100 girls—a pro-
portion which in France is still more unfa-
vourable. Dr Stock II gives accounts for

the most interesting

*Supplement on the proportional numbers
of the two sexes in animals belonging to
various classes*

As near as I can discover has been paid
attention to the relative numbers of the two
sexes through the animal kingdom I will
here give such material as I have been able to
collect, although they are in many instances imperfect.
They consist in only a few instances of actual
enumeration, and the numbers are not very
large. As the proportions are known with cer-
tainly only in a few cases I will first give them
as a standard of comparison.

Man.—In England during ten years (from
1857 to 1866) the average number of children
born annually was 771,000 in the propor-
tion of 104.5 male to 100 female. But in 1857
the male births through the England were as
105.2, and in 1866 as 104.0 to 100. Looking at
separated tracts, in Berkshire (where
about 6000 children are annually born) the
male proportion of male to female births, dur-
ing the whole period of the above ten years,
was as 102.8 to 100 whilst in Wales (where
the average annual births are 12,833) it was as
high as 106 to 100. Taking the small dis-
trict, viz. Rutlandshire (where the annual
births average only 39) in 1864 the male
births were as 114.6 and in 1862 as only 97.0
to 100 but in this small district the
proportion of the 33.5 births during the whole
ten years, was as 104.5 to 100 that is the same

Product of the Sex 1863 p 25
British and Foreign Medico-Chirurgical Review
April 1867 p. 343 Dr Stirling also remarks in the 7th
Annual Reports of Births and Deaths Scotland
1867 p. xxviii. that "These samples in my office
show that, in almost every tag of life, the males
Scotland have a greater liability to death than

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But the size of the body and especially of the head being greater in male than female infants is another cause for the males are thus more liable to be injured during parturition. Consequently the still born males are more numerous and as a highly competent judge Dr Crichton Browne believes male infants often suffer in health for some years after birth. Owing to this excess in the death rate of male children both at birth and for some time subsequently and owing to the exposure of grown men to various dangers and to their tendency to emigrate the females in all old settled countries where statistical records have been kept are for the most part

mate. With most animals the greater size of the adult male than of the female is due to the stronger males having conquered the weaker in their struggles for the possession of the females, and no doubt it is owing to this fact that the two sexes of at least some animals differ in size at birth. Thus we have the curious fact that we may attribute the more frequent deaths of male than female infants especially amongst the illegitimate at least in part to sexual selection.

It has often been supposed that the relative age of the two parents determine the sex of the offspring and I prof Leuchart has advanced what he considers sufficient evidence with respect to man and certain domesticated animals that this is one important though not the sole factor in the result. So again the period of impregnation relatively to the state of the female has been thought by some to be the efficient cause but recent observations discountenance this belief. According to Dr Stockton Hough the season of the year the poverty or wealth of the parents residence in the country or in cities the crossing of foreign immigrants &c all influence the proportion of the sexes. With mankind polygamy has also been supposed to lead to the birth of a greater proportion of female than of male.

and climates in Naples Prussia, Westphalia, Holland France England and the United States the excess of male over female births is less when they are illegitimate than when legitimate. This has been explained by different writers in many different ways as from the mothers being generally young from the large proportion of first pregnancy &c. But we have seen that male infants from the large size of their head suffer more than female infants during parturition and as the mothers of illegitimate children must be more liable than other women to undergo bad labours, from various causes such as attempts at concealment by tight lacing hard work distress of high birth the female is the first to howl and the peculiarly strong development of the food digesting apparatus the male is the first to perish and the female is the first to be born.

as from monogamous unions. Hardly any animal has been rendered so highly polygamous as the English race horse and we shall immediately see that his male and female offspring are almost exactly equal in number. I will now give the facts which I have collected with respect to the proportional numbers of the sexes of various animals and will then briefly discuss how far selection has come into play in determining the result.

HOSES.—Mr Tegtmeyer has been so kind as to tabulate for me from the *haring Calendar* the births of race horses during a period of twenty one years, viz from 1846 to 1866 1849 being omitted as no returns were that

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Leckert W b H nduo terbuch der Phys.

Soc al Science Soc al f Ph l d lph 1874.

4tholog al Review April 18 0 p c v m

as published The total births were 560⁵⁴
consisting of 163 males and 197 females,
in the proportion of 99 males to 100 females.
As these numbers are fully large
and as they are drawn from all parts of the
land, during several years may with much
probability be taken as the domestic

astrated so that the following returns are
given the proportions that the Mares of Scotland
thence are bred in Scotland who
the average of the

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some of the large number than at the
the average of the

lated are considered the number
horses was as 10 to 1 in 1867 as of 9 to 6
to 1 in 1867 the tabulated statistics

and the female
periods each of 5 years the number
be recorded the last I can detect the
the kind with man in the decennial table the
Registrar's Report for 1866

During the period of ten years,
from 1857 to 1868 the birth of grey
horses through the gland was set
the female was produced in the
died to the mother of carefully to be
lung the uterus. The recorded births were 88
consisting of 360 males and 33 females,
the statistics in the proportion of 110 males to 100
females. The greater number of males occurred

heep chiefly selected during the
to sixteen years the average of the
896 births, consisting of 4107 males and 418
females the proportion of 967 males to
100 females. With respect to the Cleveland
and black-faced heep bred in Scotland the
received returns from the breeders, the
the large scale chiefly for the year 1860 1869
but some of the returns dated back to 1862
The total number recorded amounts to 9680
consisting of 4711 males and 2564 females
the proportion of 979 males to 100
females. If we take the English and Scotch
the statistics of the number of males
9600 consisting of 2948 males and 30172
females, as 977 to 100 So that with heep
the females are

the same conclusion

the proportion of 944 males to
100 females. The Registrar of Scotland informs me
that in 1867 the 34 calves born from the
Duchess only was the Mares of
Wales has a record from the breeders of
the 19 and in the statistics that the male to
the female birth as to the same

common to the received collection

I have been directed by the Cattle Commission
procured from the best of the Scotch and
the some of the best of the Scotch and
R. Ell, the first called my attention to
the premium of the best of the males, the
the quality confirmed by the A. J. C. and
the Registrar of the statistics of the
I thank you for the large returns of the heep

the number of males and 794 mares of the

ments Mr R Elliot of Loughwood informs me that a rat catcher assured him that he had always found the males in great excess even with the young in the nest. In consequence of this Mr Elliot himself subsequently examined some hundred old ones and found the statement true. Mr F Bueland has bred a large number of white rats and he also believes that the males greatly exceed the females. In regard to moles it is said that the males are much more numerous than the females⁶ and as the catching of these animals is a special occupation the statement may perhaps be trusted. Sir A Smith in describing an antelope of S Africa⁶¹ (*Kobus ellipsiprymnus*) remarks that in the herds of this and other species the males are few in number compared with the females the natives believe that they are born in this proportion others believe that the younger males are expelled from the herds and Sir A Smith says that though he has himself never seen herds consisting of young males alone others affirm that this does occur. It appears probable that the young when expelled from the herd would often fall a prey to the many beasts of prey of the country.

BIRDS

With respect to the *Fowl* I have received only one account namely that out of 1001 chickens of a highly bred stock of Cochins, reared during eight years by Mr Stretch 487 proved males and 14 females i.e. as 94.7 to 100. In regard to domestic pigeons there is good evidence either that the males are produced in excess or that they live longer for these birds invariably pair and single males as Mr Tegetmeier informs me can always be purchased cheaper than females. Usually the two birds reared from the two eggs laid in the same nest are a male and a female but Mr Harrison Weir who has been so large a breeder says that he has often bred two cocks from the same nest and seldom two hens moreover the hen is generally the weaker of the two and more liable to perish.

With respect to birds in a state of nature Mr Gould and others are convinced that the males are generally the more numerous and as the young males of many species resemble the females the latter would naturally appear to

be the more numerous. Large numbers of peasantries are reared by Mr Baker of Leadenhall from eggs laid by wild birds and he informs Mr Jenner Weir that four or five males to one female are generally produced. An experienced observer remarks⁶² that in Scandinavia the broods of the capercailzie and black cock contain more males than females and that with the Dal ripa (a kind of ptarmigan) more males than females attend the *lels* or places of courtship but this latter circumstance is accounted for by some observers by a greater number of hen birds being killed by vermin. I from various

and I have been assured that this is the case in Scotland. Mr Weir on enquiring from the dealers who receive at certain seasons large numbers of ruffs (*Uachetes pugnax*) was told that the males are much the more numerous. This same naturalist has also enquired for me from the birdcatchers who annually catch an astonishing number of various small species alive for the London market and he was unhesitatingly answered by an old and trustworthy man that with the chaffinch the males are in large excess he thought as high as 2 males to 1 female or at least as high as 10 to 3⁶³. The males of the blackbird he likewise maintained were by far the more numerous whether caught by traps or by netting at night. These statements may apparently be trusted because this same man said that the

net the females preponderate greatly but unequally during different years during some years he has found the females to the males as four to one. It would however be borne in mind that the chief season for catching birds does not begin till September so that with some species partial migrations may have begun and the flocks at this period often consist of hens alone. Mr Salvin paid particular attention to the sexes of the humming birds in

⁶⁰On the thirty-first of May G me Birds of Sweden 1867 pp 12-132

⁶¹A. H. H. f. s. l. b. o. n. e. l. t. xxi. ed. of 1845

⁶²B. H. II. to y. f. British Q. draped p. 100
III. t. t. ons. f. the Zool. gy. f. S. f. f. r. 1849 p. 1

⁶³Br. l. m. (Illustr. t. T. I. l. en. B. iv. s. 990)
comes to the same conclusion

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ght by ngl. day 0

Central American, and I concluded that with most of the species the males are necessary thus far he proceeded to specimens belonging to the species, and these consisted of 166 males and only 38 females. With two of the species the females were in excess but their proportion apparently increased during different seasons. I have collected specimens occasionally the male of *Campylopterus curvipennis* and the females as they are and on the occasions when exactly the reverse ratio. As bearing on this latter point, I may add that Mr. Peckham found in Coahuila and Epirus the sexes of the chaffinch keeping apart, and the females far the most numerous whilst in Italy Mr. Tristram found the male flocks appearing greatly to exceed the females. I am inclined to say that the *Q. alba* may be a G. T. I say, that I find the reverse of the females proportion to the males, whilst I have found as the proportion was that the females the reverse of the males act of polygamy.

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co-lus. "Inf r l f m l might readily
be mistak f males, as D Gll the has re
marked to m n regard t tro t W th some
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pec ally tended to th n t al h t y f th
puk (Es lucius) t tes th t many mal s,
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of aln t all fish re posed from th sam
se to great dang than th f males.
N rth l ss, in t f w cases in w ca th
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t in 1611 experiments, says that in
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female. Afterward females utter a r r
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th great proportion of the males, that are con-
stantly fighting and tearing each other in the
pawning beds. Thus the proportion of no
d ubt, can be accounted for apart, but the
wholly is d ubt l by the males ascending the
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remarks in regard to trout, that the same un-
fact th t the males preponde te s largely
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q to account f th t r th males are
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H th n adda, t l by c ref ly searcl g th
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be f und⁷ Mr H Lee af rum m th t o t
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F tsm utis park, 10 w re mal and 6
f m les.

The males of the Cyprinidae like wise seem to be incessant in their numbers of this family. The carp, tench, bream and minnow appear regularly to follow the practice rare in the animal kingdom of polandry for the female whilst spawning always attended by two males. Each side and the use of the bream by three females. The fact is so well known that it always recommended to keep ponds with two male to chestnut female, rather than with three males to two females. With the minnow an excellent observer states that in the spawning bed the male are ten times as numerous as the females. In the female common to the males, he immediately pressed to the male. Each side and when they have been notified that if a tumour are persued by the female.

INSECTS

In this great class the Lepidoptera almost alone affords means for judging of the proportional numbers of the sexes for they have been collected with special care by many good observers and have been largely bred from the egg or caterpillar state. I had hoped that some breeders of silk moths might have kept an exact record but after writing to France and Italy and consulting various treatises I can not find that this has ever been done. The general opinion appears to be that the sexes are nearly equal but in Italy as I hear from Professor Canestrini many breeders are convinced that the females are produced in excess. This same naturalist however informs me that in the two yearly broods of the alanthus silk moth (*Bombyx cynthia*) the males greatly preponderate in the first whilst in the second the two sexes are nearly equal or the females rather in excess.

In regard to butterflies in a state of nature several observers have been much struck by the apparently enormous preponderance of the males.²⁴ Thus Mr Bates²⁵ in speaking of several species about a hundred in number which inhabit the upper Amazons says that the males are much more numerous than the females even in the proportion of a hundred to one. In North America Edwards who had great experience estimates in the genus *Iapilio* the males to the females as four to one and Mr Walsh who informs me of this statement says that with *I. turnus* this is certainly the case. In South Africa Mr R. Trimmen found the males in excess in 19 species²⁶ and in one of these which swarms in open places he estimated the number of males as fifty to one female. With another species in which the males are numerous in certain localities he collected only five females during seven years. In the island of Bourbon M. Maillard states that the males of one species of *Iapilio* are twenty times as numerous as the females.²⁷ Mr Trimmen informs me that as far as he has himself seen or heard from others it is rare for

the females of any butterfly to exceed the males in number but three South African species perhaps offer an exception. Mr Wallace²⁸ states that the females of *Ornithoptera crassus* in the Malay Archipelago are more common and more easily caught than the males but this is a rare butterfly. I may here add that in *Hyperythra*, a genus of moths Guenée says that from four to five females are sent in collections from India for one male.

It was generally admitted that the males of most Lepidoptera, in the adult or imago state are caught in greater numbers than the females but this fact was attributed by various observers to the more retiring habits of the females and to the males emerging earlier from the cocoon. This latter circumstance is well known to occur with most Lepidoptera as well as with other insects. So that as M. Ierssonat remarks the males of the domesticated *Bombyx yamamai* are useless at the beginning of the season and the females at the end from the want of mates.²⁹ I cannot however persuade myself that these causes suffice to explain the great excess of males in the above cases of certain butterflies which are extremely common in their native countries. Mr Stainton who has paid very close attention during many years to the smaller moths informs me that when he collected them in the imago state he thought that the males were ten times as numerous as the females but that since he has reared them on a large scale from the caterpillar state he is convinced that the females are the more numerous. Several entomologists concur in this view. Mr Doubleday however and some others take an opposite view and are convinced that they have reared from the eggs and caterpillars a larger proportion of males than of females.

Besides the more active habits of the males their earlier emergence from the cocoon and in some cases their frequenting more open stations other causes may be assigned for an apparent or real difference in the proportional numbers of the sexes of Lepidoptera when captured in the imago state and when reared from the egg or caterpillar state. I hear from Mr Rolfe or Canestrini that it is believed by

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m l f b t t f re three four t s as nu
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²⁴ Th \ t al t nth Amazons \ l \ 1863 pp
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F u f thes ase are g n by Mr T me \ n
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²⁵ Quoted by Trim T act ns f th Lnl
Society \ L \ part ii 1866 p 330

²⁶ T art I n Soc ty l x p 37

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²⁸ Q ted by Dr Wallace n l oc d y fnt mo-
logical Society 3rd se ca \ L 1867 p 487

PRINCIPLES OF SEXUAL SELECTION

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may breed in Italy that the female is the pillar of the silk in the first months from the receipt of the disease than the male and Dr Staudinger informs us that in rearing Lepidoptera the female is more than twice as productive as the male.

was the practice but Dr Wallace is of the opinion that the practice is not correct.

about the largest and Professor Canestrini informs us that in Italy some breeders believe, though no scientific evidence that in the first broods of the silkworms the female is more productive than the male. Dr Wallace further remarks that the male caterpillars, from being larger than the females, require more food and moisture and thus they would be exposed to longer time to damage from chneumonids, birds, &c., and thus the female would perish in greater numbers. Hence it appears quite possible that in the state of nature, the female Lepidoptera may reach maturity than males and for special objects we are concerned with their relative numbers to maintain when the sexes are reared to propagate the kind.

of the male from their cocoons. Mr. Tainton informs us that from two to three males may often be seen together to one female *Elachista rufocincta*. It is well known that if virgin *Lasiocampa quercus* caterpillars be exposed in a cage with numbers of males collected round them and if confined in a room with them, the male caterpillars will come to the female. Mr. D. Bled informs us that he has seen from fifty to a hundred males of both these species attracted in the course of a single day to a female in confinement. I think it is likely that Mr. Trueman exposed a box which the female of the *Lasiocampa* had been confined to the previous day and five males soon discovered to gain admittance. I. A. Strahan, Mr. V. Breaux, having placed the female of a

small Bombus in a box in a pocket, was followed by a crowd of males, so that about 200 entered.

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INSECTS

In this great class the Lepidoptera almost alone affords means for judging of the proportional numbers of the sexes for they have been collected with special care by many good observers and have been largely bred from the egg or caterpillar state. I had hoped that some breeders of silk moths might have kept an exact record but after writing to France and Italy and consulting various treatises I can not find that this has ever been done. The general opinion appears to be that the sexes are nearly equal but in Italy as I hear from Professor Canestrini many breeders are convinced that the females are produced in excess. This same naturalist however informs me that in the two yearly broods of the alanthus silk moth (*Bombyx cynthia*) the males greatly preponderate in the first whilst in the second the two sexes are nearly equal or the females rather in excess.

In regard to butterflies in a state of nature several observers have been much struck by the apparently enormous preponderance of the males.⁷⁴ Thus Mr Bates⁵ in speaking of several species about a hundred in number which inhabit the upper Amazons says that the males are much more numerous than the females even in the proportion of a hundred to one. In North America Edwards who had great experience estimates in the genus *Papilio* the males to the females as four to one and Mr Walsh who informs me of this statement says that with *I. turnus* this is certainly the case. In South Africa Mr R. Trimmen found the males in excess in 19 species and in one of these which swarms in open places he estimated the number of males as fifty to one female. With another species in which the males are numerous in certain localities he collected only five females during seven years. In the island of Bourbon M. Maillard states that the males of one species of *Papilio* are twenty times as numerous as the females.⁷⁵ Mr Trimmen informs me that as far as he has himself seen or heard from others it is rare for

the females of any butterfly to exceed the males in number but three South African species perhaps offer an exception. Mr Wallace⁷⁶ states that the females of *Ornithoptera cranus* in the Malay Archipelago are more common and more easily caught than the males but this is a rare butterfly. I may here add that in *Hyperythra* a genus of moths Guenée says that from four to five females are sent in collections from India for one male.

When this subject of the proportional numbers of the sexes of insects was brought before the Entomological Society⁷⁷ it was generally admitted that the males of most Lepidoptera, in the adult or imago state are caught in greater numbers than the females but this fact was attributed by various observers to the more retiring habits of the females and to the males emerging earlier from the cocoon. This latter circumstance is well known to occur with most Lepidoptera as well as with other insects. So that as M. Ierssonat remarks the males of the domesticated *Bombyx yamamai* are useless at the beginning of the season and the females at the end from the want of mates.⁷⁸ I cannot however persuade myself that these causes suffice to explain the great excess of males in the above cases of certain butterflies which are extremely common in their native countries. Mr Stainton who has paid very close attention during many years to the smaller moths informs me that when he collected them in the imago state he thought that the males were ten times as numerous as the females but that since he has reared them on a large scale from the caterpillar state he is convinced that the females are the more numerous. Several entomologists concur in this view. Mr Doubleday however and some others take an opposite view and are convinced that they have reared from the eggs and caterpillars a larger proportion of males than of females.

Besides the more active habits of the males their earlier emergence from the cocoon and in some cases their frequenting more open stations other causes may be assigned for an apparent or real difference in the proportional numbers of the sexes of Lepidoptera, when captured in the imago state and when reared from the egg or caterpillar state. I hear from I. Rose and Cane trim that it is believed by

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m l s f l t t f l e s re three r f ur t me as
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⁷⁵ Th \ l ral et n the Amazons L. L. 1863 pp

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F ur of these cases reg by M Trim n n
his Rhopaloe a frica Aust l u s

⁷⁶ Qu ted by Trim T n s t n s f the Ent.
Society ol v part iv 1866 p 330

⁷⁷ T i g I Soc i ty l p 37
I o c d g I tomolog i Society l b 17 1863

⁷⁸ Qu ted by Dr W llace n I o c d g I tomolo-
gical Society 3rd ser s, v l v 1867 p 487

ferent localities. But as H. Müller has himself remarked to me these remarks must be received with some caution, as in sex might more easily escape observation than the other. Thus his brother Fritz Müller has noticed in Brazil that the two sexes of the same species of bee sometimes frequent different kinds of flowers. With respect to the Orthoptera, I know hardly anything about the relative number of the sexes. H. W. Bates says that out of 500 locusts which he examined, the males were to the females as five to six. With the Neuroptera, Mr. Walsby states that in many British specimens in all the species of the oonotid group, there is a great overplus of males in the genus *Heterotoma*, also, the males are generally at least four times as numerous as the females. In certain species in the genus *Gomphus* the males are equal in excess, whilst in two other species, the females are twice or thrice as numerous as the males. In some European species of *Iliocyba* thousand of females may be collected whilst a single male, whilst with other species of the same genus both sexes are common.²⁰ In England, Mr. MacLachlan has captured hundreds of the female *Sp. ulmifolia* but has never seen the male and of *Boreus hyemalis* only four or five males have been seen here.²¹ With most of these species (excepting the *Tenthredinidae*) there is at present no evidence that the females are subject to parthenogenesis and thus we see how ignorant we are of the causes of the apparent discrepancy in the pro-

portion which is sometimes carried to an extreme degree) and then would it differ in appearance in account in some instances for their rarity in collections.²²

Some of the lower crustaceans are able to propagate their kind sexually and this will account for the extreme rarity of the males. Thus the *Amphipoda* carefully examined no less than 15,000 specimens of *Apus* from twenty localities, and among these he found only 319 males. With some other forms (as *Tanaids* and *Cyprids*) as Fritz Müller informs me this is reason to believe that the males are much shorter lived than the females and this would explain their scarcity supposing the two sexes to be at first equal in number. On the other hand Müller has invariably taken far more males than females of the *Daphnia* lake and of *Cyprina* in the shores of Brazil thus with a species in the latter genus, 63 specimens caught the same day included males but he suggests that this preponderance may be due to some unknown difference in the habits of the two sexes. With one of the largest Brazilian crabs, namely *Gelasimus*, Fritz Müller found the males to be more numerous than the females. According to the late experience of Mr. C. H. Bate that the reverse seems to be the case with six common British crabs, the names of which he has given me

The proportion of the sexes in relation to natural selection

There is reason to suspect that in some cases man has by selection indirectly increased his own sex producing powerful Crustacean women to produce children their whole lives more children of one sex than of the other and this same holds good of many animals, for in

Dr. H. W. Bates writes to me that the males from their more erratic habits are more commonly seen, and therefore appear more numerous. This is actually the case with few species but in numerous several species in six genera, in which the females appear to be much more numerous than the males.²³ The small size of the males in comparison with the females (peculiarity

of horses, produced several fillies. Though I have very little evidence on this subject, analogy would lead to the belief that the tendency never to produce either sex would be inhibited by almost every thing peculiar for instance that of producing twins and concerning the above tendency a good authority Mr. J. Downing, has communicated to me facts which seem to prove that this does occur in certain families of short horn cattle. Col.

²⁰Die *Strick*, *Z. g. d. d. Wanderkuckucke*, 1823, p. 20.

²¹Observations on American Neuroptera, by H. W. Bates and B. D. Walsh, *Proceed. Ent. Soc. Philadelphia*, Oct., 1863, pp. 163, 223, 232.

²²*Proceedings, Ent. Soc. London*, Feb. 1, 1868.

²³Another great authority with respect to this class, Prof. Thorell of Upsala (*O. Eur. von Spiders*, 1869-70, part 1, p. 203), speaks as if female spiders were generally commoner than the males.

²⁴See, on this subject, Mr. O. P. Cambridge as quoted in *Quarterly Journal of Science* 1868, page 429.

²⁵*Beitrage zu Parthenogenesis*, p. 11.

100 females But the numbers are hardly large enough to be trustworthy

On the whole from these various sources of evidence all pointing in the same direction I infer that with most species of Lepidoptera the mature males generally exceed the females in number whatever the proportions may be at their first emergence from the egg

It is hardly worth while saying anything about the proportion of the sexes in certain species and even groups of insects, for the males are unknown or very rare and the females are parthenogenetic that is fertile without sexual union examples of this are afforded by several of the Cynipidæ⁵⁵ In all the gall making Cynipia known to Mr Walsh the

	Male	F male
The Rev J Hill ⁵⁴ of Exeter reared during 1868 imagoes of 73 species which consisted of	153	137
Mr Albert Jones of Eltham reared during 1868 imagoes of 9 species which consisted of	159	126
During 1869 I reared imagoes from 1 species consisting of	114	112
Mr Buckler of Immingham during 1869 reared imagoes from 74 species consisting of	180	169
Dr Wallace of C. Leche reared from one brood of <i>Bombus cynthicus</i>	2	48
Dr Waller reared from cocoons of <i>Bombus pennsylvanicus</i> from China during 1869	2	1
Dr Wallace raised during 1869 from two lots of cocoons of <i>Bombus yagorhiscus</i>	2	46
Total	934	61

With reference to the other Orders of insects I have been able to collect very little reliable information With the stag beetle (*Lucanus cervus*) the males appear to be much more numerous than the females but when as Cornelius remarked during 1877 an unusual number of these beetles appeared in one part of Germany the females appeared to exceed the males as six to one With one of the Elateridæ the males are said to be much more numerous than the females and two or three are often found united with one female⁵⁶ so that here polyandry seems to prevail With Siagonum (*Staphylinidae*) in which the males are furnished with horns the females are far more numerous than the opposite sex Mr Janson stated at the Entomological Society that the females of the bark beetle, *Tomicus villosus* are so common as to be a plague whilst the males are so rare as to be hardly known

females are four or five times as numerous as the male and so it is as he informs me with the gall making *Cecidomyia* (Diptera) With some common species of saw flies (Tenthredinæ) Mr I. Smith has reared hundreds of specimens from larvæ of all sizes, but has never reared a single male on the other hand Curtis says⁵⁷ that with certain species (Athyridæ) bred by him the males were to the females as six to one whilst exactly the reverse occurred with the mature insects of the same species caught in the fields In the family of bees Hermann Müller collected a large number of specimens of many species and reared others from the cocoons and counted the sexes He found that the males of some species greatly exceeded the females in number in others the reverse occurred and in others the two sexes were nearly equal But as in most cases the males emerge from the cocoons before the females they are at the commencement of the breeding season practically in excess Müller also observed that the relative number of the two sexes in some species differed much in life

⁵⁴Walsh, the *Imperial Entomologist* L. 1869 p. 103 and the *Revue de Zoologie* 1867 p. 324

⁵⁵Walsh, the *Imperial Entomologist* L. 1869 p. 103 and the *Revue de Zoologie* 1867 p. 324

we estimate that if it is possible to take late the

From the several foregoing cases we have some reason to believe that infant depredation in the manner above explained tends to

we have in males.

In census of all the island in 1880* the males of all ages amount to 3622 and the females to 33128 as 109.49 to 100. The males under sixteen years amount to 103 and the females under the same age to 993 as 112.3 to 100. From the census of 1882 the proportion of females (including half-castes) to males, is as 125.36 to 100. It must be borne in mind that all these consist of the Sandwich Islands the proportion of females to males, and

referred births*

*The figures in the R. H. T. Cheever's List

the reclaimed natives, we may suspect that, as the

breeds, that the capture, perhaps, of greyhounds, may more females proper be destroyed than males, just as the Tod and the M. C. pples

species, has been the solid testimony to an excess of males. There may be some unknown variable to this result decreasing races, which have already become somewhat infertile. Besides these several causes possibly all the greater facility of parturition amongst savages, and the less consequent injury to their male infants, would tend to increase the proportion of live-born males to females. This does not, however, seem to be any necessary connection between savagery and marked excess of male that is if we may judge by the character of the scanty off

As the males and females of many animals differ somewhat in bits and are exposed in different degrees to dangers it is probable that in many cases, more females than males of the other are habitually destroyed. But as far as I

possessing power of the species. With strictly social animals, such as bees and ants, which produce a vast number of sterile and fertile females, comparison with the males, and to which the preponderance is of paramount importance, we can see that the sex community would flourish better with the coordinated females having a stronger tendency to produce more and more males and in which cases an equal sex proportion tends even would be ultimately gained through natural selection. With animals living in herds or troops, in which the males come to the front and defend the herd as with the bison of North America and certain boobies, the excess of males is the more productive of the might be gained by natural selection of the individuals of the herd of the descendants. In the case of mammals, the advantage is in favour of the male in the preponderance of males in the tribe.

Marshall⁹⁴ has recently found on careful examination that the Todas a hill tribe of India, consist of 112 males and 84 females of all ages—that is in a ratio of 133·3 males to 100 females. The Todas who are polyandrous in their marriages during former times invariably practised female infanticide but this practice has now been discontinued for a considerable period. Of the children born within late years the males are more numerous than the females in the proportion of 124 to 100. Colonel Marshall accounts for this fact in the following ingenious manner. Let us for the purpose of illustration take three families as representing an average of the entire tribe say that one mother gives birth to six daughters and no sons, a second mother has six sons only whilst the third mother has three sons and three daughters. The first mother following the tribal custom destroys four daughters and preserves two. The second retains her six sons. The third kills two daughters and keeps one as also her three sons. We have then from the three families nine sons and three daughters with which to continue the breed. But whilst the males belong to families in which the tendency to produce sons is great, the females are of those of a converse inclination. Thus the bias strengthens with each generation until as we find families grow to have habitually more sons than daughters.

That this result would follow from the above form of infanticide seems almost certain that is if we assume that a sex producing tendency is inherited. But as the above numbers are so extremely scanty I have searched for additional evidence but cannot decide whether what I have found is trustworthy nevertheless the facts are perhaps worth giving. The Maories of New Zealand have long practised infanticide and Mr Fenton states that he has met with instances of women who have destroyed four six and even seven children mostly females. However the universal testimony of those best qualified to judge is conclusive that this custom has for many years been almost extinct. Probably the year 1830 may be named as the period of its ceasing to exist. Now amongst the New Zealanders as with the Todas male births are considerably in excess. Mr Fenton remarks (p. 30) "One fact is certain although the exact period of the commencement of this singular condition

of the disproportion of the sexes cannot be demonstratively fixed it is quite clear that this course of decrease was in full operation during the years 1830 to 1844 when the non-adult population of 1844 was being produced and has continued with great energy up to the present time. The following statements are taken from Mr Fenton (p. 6) but as the numbers are not large and as the census was not accurate uniform results cannot be expected. It should be borne in mind and the following cases that the normal state of every population is an excess of women at least in all civilised countries chiefly owing to the greater mortality of the male sex during youth and partly to accidents of all kinds later in life. In 1838 the native population of New Zealand was estimated as consisting of 31,667 males and 34,303 females of all ages, that is in the ratio of 130·3 males to 100 females. But during this same year and in certain limited districts the numbers were ascertained with much care and the male of all ages were here 7·3 and the females 61·6 that is in the ratio of 1 male to 100 females. It is more important for us that during the same year of 1838 the non-adult males within the same district were found to be 1·8 and the non-adult females 14·7 that is in the ratio of 12·3 to 100. It may be added that in 1844 at which period female infanticide had only lately ceased the non-adult males in one district were 281 and the non-adult females only 194 that is in the ratio of 144·8 males to 100 females.

In the Sandwich Islands the males exceed the females in number. Infanticide was formerly practised there to a frightful extent but was by no means confined to female infants, as is shown by Mr Ellis⁹⁵ and as I have been informed by Bishop Staley and the Rev. Mr Coan. Nevertheless another apparently trustworthy writer Mr Jarves⁹⁶ whose observations apply to the Archipelago remarks—"Numbers of women are to be found who confess to the murder of from three to six or eight children and he adds females were being considered useful than males were more often destroyed. From what is known to occur in other parts of the world this statement is probable but must be received with much caution. The practice of infanticide ceased about the year 1819 when idolatry was abolished and many names settled in the is-

⁹⁴The Todas 1873 pp. 100, 111, 194, 196.

⁹⁵(*Original Inhabitant of New Zealand* (Go. rn. me. t. Report) 1859 p. 36.

⁹⁶Jarves's *Tariki* 1826 p. 228.

⁹⁷Ellis's *Native Life* 1843 p. 93.

posed to be one chief cause of the practice of female infanticide

In no case as far as we can see would an inherited tendency to produce both sexes in equal numbers or to produce one sex in excess be a direct advantage or disadvantage to certain individuals more than to others for instance an individual with a tendency to produce more males than females would not succeed better in the battle for life than an individual with an opposite tendency and therefore a tendency of this kind could not be gained through natural selection Neverthe-

less there are certain animals (for instance fishes and cirripedes) in which two or more males appear to be necessary for the fertilisation of the female and the males accordingly largely preponderate but it is by no means obvious how this male producing tendency could have been acquired I formerly thought that when a tendency to produce the two sexes in equal numbers was advantageous to the species it would follow from natural selection, but I now see that the whole problem is so intricate that it is safer to leave its solution for the future

pending on its manner of growth. The amount of light seems to be influential to a certain extent for altho, as repeatedly stated by Mr Gwyn Jeffreys, the shells of some species living at profound depths are brightly coloured, the green partly seen through the lower surfaces, as well as the parts covered by the mantle, less highly coloured than the upper and exposed surfaces. In some cases, as with shells living amongst corals brightly tinted seaweeds, the brilliant colours may serve as protection. But in many of the nudibranch Molluscs.

Aplysia *sinensis* — from information kindly given me by Mr Hancock, it seems extremely doubtful whether these colours usually serve as protection. With some species this may be the case as with one kind which lives on the green leaves of algae and is itself bright green. But many brightly coloured whelms, the wise conchologists say, do not seek concealment but, as in some equally conspicuous species, as well as the dull-coloured kind, live undisturbed.

its general habits of life, the more brightly tinted individuals would succeed best and would increase in number but this would be a case of natural and not of sexual selection.

*Sub-kingdom of the VERME. Class ANNELIDA (or Sea worms).—*In this class, although the sexes, when separate sometimes differ from each other in characters of such importance that they have been placed under distinct genera or families, yet the difference does not seem of the kind which can be safely attributed to sexual selection. These animals are often beautifully coloured but as the sex does not differ in this respect, we are but little concerned with them. The nemertean, though so lowly organised, is provided with any other group in the invertebrate series yet Dr McIntosh cannot discover that these colours are of any service. The sedentary annelids become duller coloured, according to Mr Quatrefages, after the period of reproduction and this I presume may be attributed to their less vigorous condition at that time. All these worm-like animals apparently stand too low in the scale for the individuals of either sex to exert any choice in selecting a partner or for the individuals of the same sex to struggle together in rivalry.

their parents greatly benefited by such lowly-organised creatures this is extremely improbable. It is not at all obvious that offspring from the more beautiful pairs of hermaphrodites would have an advantage. The offspring of the less beautiful, so as to increase in number unless indeed we are and bear in general conceded which is not the case of many of the males becoming mature before the females, with the more beautiful males selected by the more vigorous females. If indeed, brilliant colours were beneficial to the hermaphrodite animal in relation to

*Sub-kingdom of the ARTHROPODA. Class CRUSTACEA.—*In this great class we first meet with undoubtedly secondary sexual characters, often developed in a remarkable manner. It is naturally the habits of crustaceans are very imperfectly known, and we cannot explain the uses of many of their peculiarities on sex. With the few parasitic species the males are of small size and the females are furnished with perfect swimming legs, antennae and sense-organs, the females being destitute of these organs, with their bodies often consisting of a mere distorted mass. But these extraordinary differences between the two sexes are not directly related to their widely different habits of life, and consequently do not concern us. In the crustaceans, belonging to distinct families, the antennae and antennae are furnished with peculiar thread-like bodies, which are believed to act as smelling-organs, and these are much more numerous in the males than in the females. As

I have given (*Geological Observations on Fæøø Islands 1844* p. 53) a curious instance of the influence of light on the colours of the crustacean deposited on the surface of the coast rocks of Avernus and formed by the solution of trisulphate of iron.

Dr Mose has lately discussed the subject in his paper on the Adaptation of Molluscs, *Proc. Boston Soc. of Nat. Hist.* vol. 21 April, 1871

See his beautiful monograph *British Annelids*, part I, 1873, p. 3.

See M. Férrière, *L'Origine de l'Homme* d'après Darwin, *Revue Scientifique* Feb 1873, p. 566.

this purpose. So again with many animals especially the lower ones the bile is richly coloured thus as I am informed by Mr Hancock the extreme beauty of the Eolidæ (naked sea slugs) is chiefly due to the biliary glands being seen through the translucent integuments—this beauty being probably of no service to these animals. The tints of the decaying leaves in an American forest are described by every one as gorgeous yet no one supposes that these tints are of the least advantage to the trees. Bearing in mind how many substances closely analogous to natural organic compounds have been recently formed by chemists and which exhibit the most splendid colours it would have been a strange fact if substances similarly coloured had not often originated independently of any useful end thus gained in the complex laboratory of living organisms.

The sub kingdom of the MOLLUSCA. Through out this great division of the animal kingdom as far as I can discover secondary sexual characters such as we are here considering never occur. Nor could they be expected in the three lowest classes namely in the ascidians, Polyzoa and brachiopods (constituting the Molluscoida of some authors) for most of these animals are permanently affixed to a support or have their sexes united in the same individual. In the Lamellibranchiata or bivalve shells hermaphroditism is not rare. In the next higher classes of the Gasteropoda or univalve shells the sexes are either united or separate. But in the latter case the males never possess special organs for finding, securing or charming the females or for fighting with other males. As I am informed by Mr Gwyn Jeffreys the sole external difference between the sexes consists in the shell sometimes differing a little in form for instance the shell of the male periwinkle (*Littorina littorea*) is narrower and has a more elongated spire than that of the female. But differences of this nature it may be presumed are directly connected with the act of reproduction or with the development of the ova.

The Gasteropoda though capable of locomotion and furnished with imperfect eyes do not appear to be endowed with sufficient mental powers for the members of the same sex to struggle together in rivalry and thus to acquire secondary sexual characters. Nevertheless with the pulmoniferous gasteropods, or land snails the pairing is preceded by courtship for these animals, though hermaphro-

dites are compelled by their structure to pair together. Agassiz remarks, *Quiconque a eu l'occasion d'observer les amours des limaçons ne saurait mettre en doute la séduction déployée dans les mouvements et les allures qui préparent et accomplissent le double embrassement de ces hermaphrodites*.¹ These animals appear also susceptible of some degree of permanent attachment an accurate observer Mr Lonsdale informs me that he placed a pair of land snails (1

weakly After a s... individual disappeared and was traced by its track of slime over a wall into an adjoining well stocked garden. Mr Lonsdale concluded that it had deserted its sickly mate but after an absence of twenty four hours it returned, and apparently communicated the result of its successful exploration for both then started along the same track and disappeared over the wall.

From the highest class of the Mollusca,

1 11 etc etc

from an enemy.⁴ Certain Cephalopoda however are characterized by one extraordinary sexual character namely that the male element collects within one of the arms or tentacles which is then cast off and clinging by its sucking discs to the female lives for a time an independent life. So completely does the cast off arm resemble a separate animal that it is described by Cuvier as a parasitic worm under the name of Hectocotyle. But this marvellous structure may be classed as a primary rather than as a secondary sexual character.

Although with the Mollusca sexual selection does not seem to have come into play yet many univalve and bivalve shells, such as volute colour pear... in they are probably the direct result, as in the lowest classes of the nature of the tissues the patterns and the sculpture of the shell de-

De l'hermaphroditisme

equal in the male on the opposite sides of the body. In *G. lasius*, according to a statement quoted by Milne Edwards, the male and the female live in the same burrow and thus show that they pass the male loses the mouth of the burrow with one of its claws which is enormous and eloped so that he rests

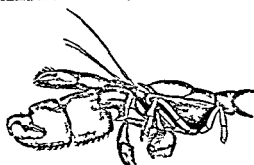


FIG. 5. Anterior part of body of *Callinectes* (from Milne Edwards), showing the unequal and differently-constructed right and left hands of the male.

✓ B. The artist by mistake has reversed the drawing and made the left hand chela the largest.



FIG. 6.

FIG. 6. Second leg of male *Orchestia tucurati* pa (from Fritz Müller).



FIG. 7.

FIG. 7. Ditto of female.

seized by the strong pincers of the male but as she is caught and carried about by the male before moulting, she could then be seized with impunity.

Fritz Müller states that certain species of *Milnes* are distinguished from all other amphipods by the females having the coxal lamellae of the penultimate pair of feet produced into hook-like processes, of which the males lay hold with the hands of the first pair. The development of these hook-like processes has probably followed from those females which were the most securely held during the act of reproduction, having the largest number of offspring. In the Brazilian amphipod (*Orchestia darwini*, fig. 8) presents a case of dimorphism, like that of *Tanaus* for the male and female claws, which differ in the structure of their chelae. A single claw in the male is sufficient to hold the

male and some in another both forms have developed certain special, but nearly equal advantages, from their differently shaped organs.

It is not known that male crustaceans fight to the death for the possession of the females, but it is probably the case for with most animals where the male is larger than the female, he seems to use his greater size to his ancestors having fought with other males during many generations. In most of the orders, especially in the highest of the Branchiura, the male is larger than the female, the parasitic genera, however, in which the sexes follow different habits of life, and most of the Entomostraca must be excepted. The claws of many crustaceans are weapons well adapted for fighting. Thus when a devil crab (*Portunus perryi*) was seen by a son of Mr. Bat fighting with *Carcinus maenas* the latter was soon thrown on its back, and had its limb torn from its body. When several males of a Brazilian *G. lasius*, species furnished with immense pincers, were placed together in a glass vessel by Fritz Müller they mutilated and killed one another. Mr. Bat put a large male *Carcinus maenas* to a painful contest with a female which was paired with a small male but the latter was

indirectly serves as means of defence. This is mainly because it is probable to seize and to secure the female and thus in some instances, as the Gammarus, is known to be the case. The male of the hermit or soldier crab (*Pagurus*) for weeks together carries both the shells inhabited by the female. The sexes, however, of the common shore-crab (*Carcinus maenas*) as Mr. Bat informs me, unite directly after the female has moulting her hard shell, where she is so soft that she would be injured if

Hist. Nat. de Crust., tom. ii., 1837, p. 50.
Mr. C. pence Ba. *British Association, Fourth Report on the Fauna of S. Devon.*

✓ Fritz Müller *Facts and Arguments for Darwin*, 1869, pp. 23-28.

the males without any unusual development of their olfactory organs would almost certainly be able sooner or later to find the females the increased number of the smelling threads has probably been acquired through sexual selection by the better provided males having been the more successful in finding partners and in producing offspring Fritz Müller has described a remarkable dimorphic species of *Tanaos* in which the male is represented by two distinct forms which never graduate into each other In one form the male is furnished with more numerous smelling threads and in the other form with more powerful and more elongated chela or pincers which serve to hold the female Fritz Müller suggests that these

great as that of the female. In many species the chelæ are of unequal size on the opposite side of the body the right hand one being, as I am informed by Mr Bate generally though not invariably the largest. This inequality is also often much greater in the male than in the female The two chelæ of the male often differ

between the
may have
a varied
number of the smelling threads whilst
other individuals varied in the shape and size
of their chelæ

the greatest number of progeny
to inherit their respective advantages

In some of the lower crustaceans the right
anterior antenna of the

may

as I hear from Sir J Lubbock to
hold the female and for this same purpose one
of the two posterior legs (b) on the same side
of the body is converted into a forceps In an
other family the inferior or posterior antennæ
are curiously zigzagged in the males alone

In the higher crustaceans the anterior legs
are developed into chelæ or pincers and these
are generally larger in the male than in the fe-
male—so much so that the market value of
the male edible crab (*Cancer pagurus*) accord-
ing to Mr C Spence Bate is five times as

Facts and Arguments for Darwin's English translation
1869 p 20 S. 1. p. 1. in the 1.

a some 1. 1.
1870 p 433) n

—M. G. f. Nat.
1863 p. 1. dx. nd. 1. (1863)

pl. 1. See also Lubbock in *Transactions of the Zoolo-
gical Society* vol. iv new series, 1856-1858 p. 8.

With respect to the zigzagged antennæ see Fritz Müller *for
Darwin*, 1869 p. 40 footnote

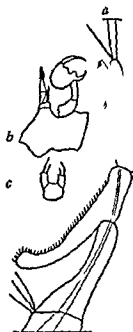


FIG. 4. *Labidodora* (from Lubbock).
a. Right anterior leg of the male.
b. Left anterior leg of the male.
c. Right thoracic leg of the male.
d. Left thoracic leg of the female.

in structure (figs 5, 6 and 7) the smaller one
resembling that of the female. What advan-
tage is gained by the

both are often much larger

at they cannot possibly be used for
carrying food to the mouth. In the males of
certain fresh water prawns (I believe) the
right leg is actually longer than the whole
body. The great size of the one leg with its
chela may aid the male in fighting with his
rivals but this will not account for their in-

See a paper by Mr C Spence Bate in the *Journal of the
Zoological Society* 1868 p. 363. d.
the nature of the sex, but p. 85. I
am greatly indebted to Mr C Spence Bate for
the observations on the sex with respect to the chela
of the higher crustaceans.

In this case we may suspect the agency of sexual selection. From M. Bert's observations on a

Class ARACHNIDA (spiders) — The sexes do not generally differ much in colour but the males are often darker than the females, as may be seen in Mr. Blackwall's magnificent work. In some species, however, the difference is conspicuous: the female of *Sparassus maragdulus* is dullish green, whilst the adult male has the abdomen of a fine blue with three longitudinal stripes of rich red. In certain species of *Thomis* the sexes closely resemble each other, but in the rest they differ much and analogous cases occur in many other genera. It is often difficult to say which of the two sexes departs most from the ordinary coloration of the genus to which the species belong. Mr. Blackwall thinks that as a general rule, it is the male and Canestrini remarks that in certain genera the males may be specifically distinguished with ease, but this is not always the case. I am informed by M.

are absent in the females, and in both sexes of one species. It would, however, be extremely rash to conclude that these curious organs serve to attract the females. I am informed by Fritz Müller that in the female of a Brazilian species of *Glasium*, the whole body is of a pearl white, tinged with brown. In the male the posterior part of the cephalo-thorax is pure white with the anterior part of rich green, passing into dark brown, and it is remarkable that these colours are liable to change in the course of few minutes — the white becoming dirty grey or black, the green losing much of its brilliancy. It deserves especial notice that the males do not acquire their bright colours until they become mature. They appear to be much more numerous than the females, they differ also in the large size of their legs. In some species of the genus, probably in all, the sexes pair and inhabit the same burrow. They are also, as we have seen, highly intelligent animals. From these various considerations it seems probable that in this species has become gradually modified in order to attract the female.

occurs in ults, before arriving at maturity. In other cases the male also appears to change colour. Thus the male of the above bright coloured *parassus* at first resembles the female and acquires his peculiar tints only when nearly adult. Spiders are possessed of acute senses, and exhibit much intelligence as well known, the females often show the strongest affection for their eggs, which they carry about on a looped silk web. The males search after the females, and have been seen by Canestrini and others to fight for possession of them. This same observation that the union of the two sexes has been observed in about twenty species and he asserts positively that the female rejects some of the males who court her, threatening them with their pincers, and at last after long hesitation accepts the chosen one.

It has just been stated that the male *Glasium* does not acquire his conspicuous colours until mature and nearly ready to breed. This seems a general rule in the whole class, respect to the most remarkable structural differences between the sexes. We shall hereafter find the same law prevailing throughout the great sub-kingdom of the Vertebrata, and in all cases it is mutually distinct of characters which have been acquired through sexual selection. Fritz Müller gives some striking instances of the law, thus the male sand hopper (*Orechestes*) does not until nearly full grown, acquire his large elytra, which are very different in construction from those of the female, whilst the legs resemble those of the female.

From these various considerations, we may admit with some confidence that the well marked differences in colour between the sexes in certain species are the result of sexual selection, though we have not hitherto the best kind of evidence — the display by the male of his ornaments. From the tremendous variety of colour in the male of some species, for instance of *Theridion lineatum*, it would appear that

I am indebted to Mr. Bat for D. P. or state-

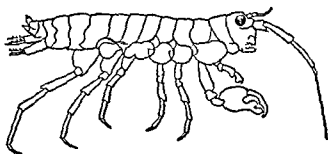
in this, Die *Schnecken* C. *pepoides*, 1863, p. 32. Facts and generalizations, p. 2.

Arachnida, in the 1. della Soc. Veneto-Trentina di Sc. Nat. Padova, vol. 1, fasc. 3, 1873.

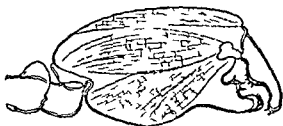
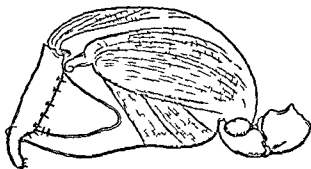
soon dispossessed Mr Bate adds if they fought the victory was a bloodless one for I saw no wounds This same naturalist separated a male sand skipper (so common on our sea shores) *Gammarus marinus* from its female both of whom were imprisoned in the same vessel with many individuals of the same species The female when thus divorced soon joined the others After a time the male was put again into the same vessel and he then after swimming about for a time dashed into the crowd and without any fighting at once took away his wife This fact shews that in the Amphipoda an order low in the scale the males and females recognise each other and are mutually attracted

cult to distinguish this act from one performed by man by the aid of reason

Mr Bate does not know of any well marked case of difference of colour in the two sexes of our British crustaceans in which respect the sexes of the higher animals so often differ In some cases however the males and females differ slightly in tint, but Mr Bate thinks not more than may be accounted for by their dif-



tries to catch one of the shore crabs so common on tropical coasts will perceive how wary and alert they are. There is a large crab (*Irgus latro*) found on coral islands which makes a thick bed of the picked fibres of the cocoa nut at the bottom of a deep burrow. It feeds on the fallen fruit of this tree by tearing off the husk fibre by fibre and it always begins at that end where the three eye like depressions are situated. It then breaks through one of these eyes by hammering with its heavy front pincers and turning round extracts the albuminous core with its narrow posterior



males as by an old one. The following case however can hardly be considered a trustworthy naturalist Mr Gardner¹ whilst watching a shore crab (*Gelasimus*) making its burrow threw some shell towards the hole. One rolled in and three other shells remained within a few inches of the mouth. In about five minutes the crab brought out the shell which had fallen in and carried it away to a distance of a foot. It then saw the three other shells lying near and evidently thinking that they might likewise roll in carried them to the spot where it had laid the first. It would I think be diffi-

FIGS 80 & 81. *Irgus latro* (from Frith & Mill) showing the differently-constructed chelae of the male & female.

ferent habits of life such as by the male wandering more about and being thus more exposed to the light. Dr Loeve tried to distinguish by colour the sexes of the several species which inhabit Mauritius but failed except with one species of *Squilla* probably *S. stylifera* the male of which is described as being of a beautiful bluish green with some of the appendages cherry red whilst the female is clouded with brown and grey with the red about 1/3 or much less visible than in the male.

¹ Mr Ch. Fraser in *Proc. Zool. Soc.* 1862 p. 3

¹ *Trans. the Entom. Soc. Brit.* 1840 p. 111. I have given in my *J. of Nat. Hist.* vol. p. 463 an account of the habits of the *Irgus*.

CHAPTER V

SECONDARY SEXUAL CHARACTERS OF INSECTS

In the immense class of insects the sexes sometimes differ in their locomotive organs, and even in their sense-organs, as in the pectinated and beautiful plumose antennae of the males of many species. In Chironomus, one of the Ephemeroptera, the male has great palated vesicles, of which the female is entirely destitute. The ocelli are absent in the females of certain insects, as in the Mutillidae, and here the females are likewise wingless. Both wings are chiefly concerned with structures by which one male is enabled to conquer another either in battle or courtship, through his strength, pugnacity, ornaments, or music. The numerous courtship dances, therefore, by which the male is able to seize the female may be briefly passed over. Besides the complex structures of the pectus of

without jury. One of the tape-beetles of North America (*Laccinus lapidarius*) uses his jaws, which are much larger than those of the female for the same purpose but probably likewise for fighting. In one of the sand wasps (*Ammonia*) the jaws in the two sexes are closely alike but are used for widely different purposes: the males, as Professor Woodward observes, "are exceedingly and ut. seizing the partners round the neck with their sickle-shaped jaws" whilst the females use these

for the seemingly insignificant object of enabling the male to grasp the female firmly. The mandibles or jaws are sometimes used for this purpose: thus the male *Corymbus cornutus*, a neuropterous insect in some degree allied to the dragon flies, &c.) has immense curved jaws, many times longer than those of the female and the are smooth instead of being toothed, so that he is thus enabled to seize her



FIG. 9. *Cimbex cimbex*. Upper figure male lower figure female

Mr J. Lebeck, *Transact. Linn. Soc.* vol. 21, 1866, p. 44. With respect to the Mutillidae see Westw. *Modern Class. of Insects* vol. 11, p. 213.

These organs in the male are often placed in close proximity, and all of excellent specimens have been found to be so from functional point of view. As Mr R. MacLachlan has remarked the male has probably been verified. It has been suggested that such differences in these organs would suffice to prevent the interbreeding of well-marked varieties in parent species, and would thus aid in their development. This idea can hardly be the case as may be seen from the many recorded cases (see for instance Brown, *Ge. Archiv. der Naturh.* B. 11, 1843, p. 164) and Westw. *Transact. Ent. Soc.* vol. 11, 1844, p. 120) of distinct species having been observed in nature. Mr MacLachlan of course may well have been misled by the fact that he has seen several species of Phryganidia which present strongly pronounced differences in this kind, are considered to rather by Dr. Aug. Meyer. They are not, and one pair produced from the same.

The *Practical Entomologist*, Philadelphia, vol. 11, 1867, p. 22.

organs for burrowing, in sand-banks and making their nests.

The tarsi of the front legs are dilated in many male beetles, or are furnished with broad cushions of hairs and in many genera of water beetles they are armed with round and sucker so that the male may adhere to the slippery body of the female. It is a much more usual circumstance that the females of some water beetles (*Dytiscus*) have their first tarsal deeply grooved, and in some cases thick

M. Walsh, *Ibid.*, p. 107.

Modern Class. of Insects, vol. 11, 1844, pp. 204, 206. M. Walsh has called attention to the double use of the male, as he has repeatedly observed two facts.

these sexual characters of the males have not as yet become well fixed. Canestrini draws the same conclusion from the fact that the males of certain species present two forms differing from each other in the size and length of their jaws, and this reminds us of the above cases of dimorphic crustaceans.

The male is generally much smaller than the female, sometimes to an extraordinary degree,¹ and he is forced to be extremely cautious in making his advances, as the female often carries her coyness to a dangerous pitch. De Greer saw a male that, in the midst of his preparatory caresses, was seized by the object of his attentions, enveloped by her in a web, and then devoured, a sight which, as he said, filled him with horror and indignation.² The Rev. O. I. Cambridge³ accounts in the following manner

“The male escapes from the ferocity of the female by gliding about and playing hide and seek over her body and along her gigantic limbs; in such a pursuit it is evident that the chances of escape would be in favour of the male. In the first the larger ones would

“creative functions—in fact, probably to the size we now see them to be so small as to be a sort of parasite upon the female, and either beneath her notice or too agile and too small for her to catch without great difficulty.

Westring has made the interesting discovery

that the males of several species of *Theridion*⁴ have the power of making a stridulating sound, whilst the females are mute. The apparatus consists of a serrated ridge at the base of the abdomen, against which the hard hinder part of the thorax is rubbed, and of this structure

“moptera” to be described in the next chapter we may feel almost sure that the stridulation serves, as Westring also believes, to call or to excite the female, and thus is the first case known to me in the ascending scale of the animal kingdom of sound is emitted for this purpose.⁵

Class MYRIAPODA.—In neither of the two orders in this class, the millipedes and centipedes, can I find any well marked instances of such sexual differences as more particularly concern us. In *Glomeris limbata*, however, and

“In some species of *Iulus* the tarsi of the male are furnished with membranous suckers for the same purpose. As we shall see, when we treat

extremity of the tarsus.

“D. H. H. n. Z. t. ce. i. l. t. t. m. t. f. t. k. (l. i. p. 444) l. coll. etc. (see ref.)

“cco. ts. K. by d. spe. r. I. d. ol. t. n. t. F. t. mol. gy. l. 1818 p. 260. 2. l. oc. d. n. g. r. /ool. g. l. Soc. t. j. 1871 p. 621.

“W. l. ck. u. r. t. l. G. s. H. l. v. t. sc. t. l. j. t. c. t. m. 1817 l. p. 17. 19. 68.

that all the Lampyridae which he has tried are highly unattractive insects or odorous mammals and birds. Hence it is in accordance with M. Bates' view hereafter to be planned that many insects mimic the Lampyridae solely in order to be mistaken for them, and thus to escape destruction. He further believes that the luminous species profit by being thus recognized as unpalatable. It is probable that the same planation may be extended to the *Arctiids*, both species of which are highly luminous. It is not known whether wings of the female glow worm have not been developed but in the present state so closely resembles larva, and as larvae are so largely preyed on

matured and thus would procreate a large number of offspring which would inherit the reduced size of the male parents, whilst the large males from being matured later would have few offspring.

There are however exceptions to this rule
not be smaller than the females

f males and in these cases, as with the tap-
 beetle (*Lucania*), the males are larger than the
 f males. There are however other beetles
 which are not known to fight together of
 which the males exceed the f males in size and
 the meaning of this fact is not known but in
 some of these cases, as with the huge *Dyna* tics
 and *Melasma*, we can at least see that the re-
 sult would be no necessity for the males to be
 smaller than the f males, in order to be ma-
 tured before them if these beetles are not

smaller than the σ males and this difference can often be detected in the larval state. No considerable difference between the male and σ male cocoon of the silk moth (*Bombyx mori*) that in France they are separated by particular marks of a σ pupa. In the lower classes of the animal kingdom, the great sex of the females seems generally to depend on their having an enormous number of σ and this may certainly hold good of many insects. But Dr. Wallace has suggested much more probable explanation. He finds, after careful attention, that the difference of the caterpillars of *Bombix cynthia* and *gamma* and especially that of some dwarfed caterpillars reared from second brood on unnatural food that in proportion as the individual moth is finer so is the time required for its metamorphosis to be longer and for this reason the σ male which is the larger and heavier insect, from having to carry numerous eggs, will be preceded by the male which is smaller and less able to mature. As most insects are short-lived, and as they are supposed to mate once, it would manifestly be disadvantageous to the female to be impregnated as soon as possible. This would be gained if the males being first matured, large numbers read for the adult of the σ males and this again would naturally follow as V. R. Wallace has remarked, although natural selection for the smaller males would be first.

and as M. Maclellan behaveth and not
nearly part with it makes until a week or
fortnight has lapsed, and until she has
assumed their proper masculine colours. But
the most curious case sawing on what com-
ple and sail so looked red to us, so trivial

character as didance in size between the sexes may depend is that of the aculeate Hymenoptera. M. F. Smith informs me that through out nearly the whole of this large group the males, accordance with the general rule, are smaller than the females, and in regard to a week before them but amongst the bees, the males of the same species

and amount of the fossae, the males of the *Melospiza cinerea* are larger than the females. The explanation of this anomaly that a marriage tie is absolutely necessary with these species, and the male requires great strength and size in order to carry the female through the air. Increased size has here been acquired in proportion to the usual relation between size and the period of development for the males, though larger merely before the smaller females.

We will now review the several Ord. re-
selection such facts as more particularly con-

Indexer for Vol 144 p 20
Treasurer List for 5th session of p 44
Journal of Proc List for 1 to 15 p 133

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se ex see hurb and pe ce bed. d. in p. 300
on the duratio of id in insert, we p. 344.

set with hairs as an aid to the male. The females of some other water beetles (*Hydroporus*) have their elytra punctured for the same purpose.⁶ In the male of *Crabrochirarius* (fig 9) it is the tibia which is dilated into a broad horny plate with minute membranous dots giving to it a singular appearance like that of a riddle.⁷ In the male of *Penthe* (a genus of beetles) a few of the middle joints of the anten-



FIG 10 *Tajl od l t t* (male & female) Upper figure male, lower figure female

nae are dilated and furnished on the inferior surface with cushions of hair exactly like those on the tarsi of the Carabidae, and obviously for the same end. In male dragon flies the

appendages at the tip of the tail are modified in an almost infinite variety of curious patterns to enable them to embrace the neck of the female. Lastly in the males of many insects, the legs are furnished with peculiar pines, knobs or spurs or the whole leg is bowed or thickened but this is by no means invariably a sexual character or one pair or all three pairs are elongated sometimes to an extravagant length.⁸

The sexes of many species in all the orders present differences of which the meaning is not understood. One curious case is that of a beetle (fig 10) the male of which has left mandible much enlarged so that the mouth is greatly distorted. In another carabidous beetle *Lurygnathus*⁹ we have the case unique as far as known to Mr Wollaston of the head of the female being much broader and larger though in a variable degree than that of the male. Any number of such cases could be given. They abound in the *Lepidoptera* one of the most extraordinary is that certain male butterflies have their fore legs more or less atrophied with the tibiae and tarsi reduced to mere rudimentary knobs. The wings, also, in the two sexes often differ in venation¹⁰ and sometimes considerably in outline as in the *Tricoris epitus* which was shewn to me in the British Museum by Mr A Butler. The males of certain South American butterflies have tufts of hair on the margin of the wings and horny excrescences on the discs of the posterior pair.¹¹ In several British butterflies as shewn by Mr Wollaston the males alone are in parts clothed with peculiar scales.

The use of the bright light of the female glow worm has been subject to much discussion. The male is feebly luminous as are the larva and even the egg. It has been supposed by some authors that the light serves to frighten away enemies and by others to guide the male to the female. At last, Mr Belt¹² appears to have solved the difficulty. He finds

that by and Spence *Introd. et. de* vol. 1 pp 332-336.

Insula Madagascariensis 1854 p. 20.

L. D. Bledy, *et. de* vol. 1 p. 30. I m. y. n. l. that the ng. a. cert. n. Hym. pt. ra. (see Stuckard *et. serial* Hym. pt. 1837 pp. 39-43) d. f. r. i. n. r. t. c. conl. g. to se.

H. W. B. t. s. *Jo. l. f. l. o. e. l.* See vol.

See Dr H. Schaum's quoted in *Zool. g. t. v. l. s.* 1847-48 p. 1896. Also H. by n. l. Spence *Intod. ction to Entomology* vol. 1826 p. 30. *W. Wood M. d. r. n. Cl.* v. l. p. 193. Th. f. l. g. s. t. i. m. n. t. b. o. u. t. l. i. t. h. l. t. h. r. s. i. n. l. r. t. l. c. o. m. m. a. s. a. r. e. t. a. k. n. f. r. o. m. M. r. W. b. l. f. a. c. t. i. c. a. l. *Entomologist*, l. h. l. a. d. l. p. h. a. l. u. p. 88.

fifty l r se of C pru osa and I several tun s
noted the female s to light near male while
he was uttering his langu note Frit Mul
l stormef mS Brazil that h has ft n
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o find them by the records, but that I have
found that they are cited rather by the
male than the female voice.

Ord. OTHOPTERA (Cickets and Grasshoppers).—The males in the three saltatorial

eq le t Engl h m and the And dæo
gras b pp Th trid lat n prod ced by
some f the Locu tidæ is sol d that it can be
h ard d ri g tly gl t the distance f
m l and that mad ly oc tain peces is n t
unm l n to the l man ar so that th
Ind ans th Amazo keep t l m in wicke
cages All bserv rs gree t t the sou d
r v it t call ite t mute f males.
W th pect to th ung atory locu ts f R s
ia, h rt has g n n ut ting case f
select by th f m l f mal The m l
t l pect (*Iachtylus m g at*) whil
upled th f mal t d t l from Ang
l y if pp ached by th r males Th
l use cri k t he uprised t nght use t
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th katyd (*I latyphyl m c m*
th Locustidæ) is described as mo t g r
the uppe b h f tree and n th
nung be ginn g h y babbie wh l r a
n t iss from t n glibo rrog tr and
t l gr so d th th l l f katy-dæ

L. Guilds & T. react f tl L. nre Society

With perfect knowledge of the subject of music, Dr. Hartman speaking of the Cicero poem, "decim fith l. ted. Stat. s. says, 'Th. d. ms. are (J. G. d. of 1841) heard if directed. Th. l. b. l. t. b. th. martal. um. as f. m. th. mal. Stand. g. n. th. h. l. t. t. pro. t. also. t. as. h. gl. as. my. l. ad. i. re. l. o. d. ed. re. und. m. I. b. o. e. ed. th. f. m. a. s. rom. ng. round. th. d. m. a. r. g. mal. If. l. d. s. Tl. seaso. (A. g. 1868) a. d. of. pear. tree. my. g. r. d. n. I. r. o. d. ed. bo. t.

^{These particulars are taken from W. t. ood.}
Moder. cl. f. son. f. f. recte. l. 1840. p. 122.
see also t. Fulg. d. e. h. u. b. y. d. p. e. c. e.
Ind. o. d. e. t. l. p. 401.

Zeitschrift für Zoologie B. VII. 1867
152 158
Transactions of the New Zealand Institute, 1.
1873 p. 25

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this ract from A J rnal f the Don g ac t un
pt uder m, by D Hartm n. (ar d

L. 1825 p 262. *Insect f* Engl'nd, 1842, p 128

cern us. The Lepidoptera (butterflies and moths) will be retained for a separate chapter.

Order THYSANURA —The members of this lowly organised order are wingless dull coloured minute insects with ugly almost misshapen heads and bodies. Their sexes do not differ but they are interesting as showing us that the males pay sedulous court to the females even low down in the animal scale. Sir J. Lubbock¹⁷ says "It is very amusing to see these little creatures (*Smynthorus luteus*) coquetting together. The male which is much smaller than the female runs round her and they butt one another standing face to face and moving backward and forward like two playful lambs. Then the female pretends to run away and the male runs after her with a queer appearance of anger gets in front and stands facing her again then she turns coyly round but he quicker and more active scuttles round too and seems to whip her with his antenna then for a bit they stand face to face play with their antennae, and seem to be all in all to one another."

Order DIPTERA (Flies) —The sexes differ little in colour The greatest difference known to Mr F Walker is in the genus *Bibio* in which the males are blackish or quite black and the females obscure brownish-orange The genus *Elaphomyia* discovered by Mr Wallace¹¹ in New Guinea, is highly remarkable as the males are furnished with horns of which the females are quite destitute The horns spring from beneath the eyes and curiously resemble those of a stag being either branched or pal

black, with a pale central stripe and as these insects have altogether a very elegant appearance it is perhaps more probable that they serve as ornaments. That the males of some Diptera fight together is certain. Irof West Wood² has several times seen this with the Tipulæ. The males of other Diptera apparently try to win the females by their music. H. Müller³ watched for some time two males of an Ichneumonid courting a female they hovered

above her and flew from side to side making a high humming noise at the same time Gnats and mosquitoes (Culicidae) also seem to attract each other by humming and Prof. Mayer has recently ascertained that the hairs on the antenna of the male vibrate in unison with the notes of a tuning fork within the range of the sounds emitted by the female. The longer hairs vibrate sympathetically with the graver notes and the shorter hairs with the higher ones. Landois also asserts that he has repeatedly drawn down a whole series of

10- and in most other insects in accordance with their highly-developed nervous system²¹

Order **HEMIPTERA** (Field Bugs) — Mr J W Douglas who has particularly attended to the British species has kindly given me an account of their sexual differences. The males of some species are furnished with wings, whilst the females are wingless; the sexes differ in the form of their bodies, elytra, antennae and tarsi but as the signification of these differences is unknown they may be here passed over. The females are generally larger and more robust than the males. With British and as far as Mr Douglas knows with exotic species, the sexes do not commonly differ much in colour but in about six British species the male is considerably darker than the female and in about four other species the female is darker than the male. Both sexes of some species are beautifully coloured and as these insects emit an extremely nauseous odour their conspicuous colours may serve as a signal that they are unpalatable to insectivorous animals. In some few cases their colours are

<i>Ta waat L nne n Soc</i>	l xx 2.	1808	p	90
<i>Th Mal y treh pel g</i>	l	1869	p	313
<i>Modern Cla n f ion f Ins et</i>	l	1810		

p 56
2nd A end g Ac. t h d n. t Jah p ix
p 80 Mayer in Americ n Nat alid, 1874 p 230

to suggest to effect it by the movement of
the neck within the prothoracic cavity. Ac-
cording to Waring *Red rump* also
stimulates. But I have no reason to sup-
pose

See M B T Low 1 1 1

will disappear
 will not disappear (I am also of insects L
 p 43

СЪДЪРЖАНИЕ

that this is sex 1 haracte cepting that
th social insects the e seems t be n
usef sound prod ing o gans unl as t be as
sexual call.

Ord H MORTERA—E ry e who has
nd red n a trop al f t m st ha been
astonded t th di mad by the male C'cadze.
The f mal s are in te as the Grec poet
Anarchus says, H ppy the c'cadze ! e
since th y all ha e cel s swi Th n use
thus mad co ld be plainl h ard n bo rd th
B of wh an h ed t a q art f

fifty larvae of *C. pruiosa* and I several times
noticed the female sing slightly as a male while
he was uttering his clanging notes. Fritz Müller
has written from São Paulo, Brazil, that he has often
noticed a musical contest between two or
three males of a species with a particularly
loud voice, and that one of the males would
begin to sing as soon as one had finished
his song and then immediately begun, and then
another, and so on, and so on, and so on, and so on,
the males, thus probably that the females not
only find them by the sounds, but that like
the male birds, they are attracted to all red by the
male with the most attractive voice.

In the trial of any well-known case of mental differences between the sexes of the Homo sapiens Mr Douglas finds that there are three British specimens, namely the male, black, marked with black bands, while the female are pale-colored obscure

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Order ORTHOPTERA (Crick and Grasshoppers) — Terminal in the three saltatorial

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 have set to act by a peculiar self. In
 the living insect, whilst it is thus moving
 about, can be set to bat and then dead
 insect will prove so and be left in the self
 which it died and hard and piled with
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 composed the material power thus present in it is
 much less divided than the material and

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 Ind ans n th Amazon keep th m in wicker
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) l) if pp oached by th mal Th
 h use-cr k t wh n rprised t n ght us s ts
 ce t warm t f l l wⁿ In \ th America
 th katyd d (*Platyllyll m arum* f
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 ung beginning h n) babble, while r al
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L. G. did g. T. react f the L. name Society

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 les H d d s The seaso (A g 1808)
 d f pear tree my gard prod ed bo t

These particulars are taken from W. L. Wood
 Modern History of Finance, 1840 p. 422.
 See also the Fulgurine, by d. p. ce
 in vol. 1 p. 401

Zeitsch f Naturgesch ft Zoolog B 1867
152 158.

I am indebted to M. Walsh for his gift of this tract from the Journal of the Don C. D. by D. Hartman.

1. 18.5 p 462

⁴⁰Harris, *Insect f \ w England*, 1842, p. 128.

she did the live long night Mr Bates in speaking of the European field cricket (one of the Achetidae) says the male has been observed to place himself in the evening at the entrance of his burrow and stridulate until a female approaches when the louder notes are succeeded by a more subdued tone whilst the successful musician caresses with his antennæ the mate he has won ³¹ Dr Scudder was able to excite one of these insects to answer him by rubbing on a file with a quill ³² In both sexes a remarkable auditory apparatus has been discovered by von Siebold situated in the front legs ³³

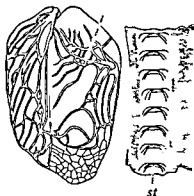


FIG 11 *Gryllus campestris* (from Landois) Right hind leg of male of part of a wing showing the teeth (st) Left hind leg of female of part of a wing showing the teeth (st) a ped

In the three families the sounds are differently produced In the males of the Achetidae both wing covers have the same apparatus and thus in the field cricket (*Gryllus campestris* fig 11) consists as described by Landois ³⁴ of from 131 to 138 sharp transverse ridges or teeth (st) on the under side of one of the nervures of the wing-cover This toothed nervure is rapidly scraped across a projecting smooth hard nervure (r) on the upper surface of the opposite wing First one wing is rubbed over the other and then the movement is reversed

³¹The Naturalist in the Museum vol 1863 p 252 Mr Bates gives a full description of the

Both wings are raised a little at the same time so as to increase the resonance In some species the wing-covers of the males are furnished at the base with a tale like plate ³⁵ I here give a drawing (fig 12) of the teeth on the under side of the nervure of another species of Gryllus viz *G. domesticus* With respect to the formation of these teeth Dr Gruber has shown ³⁶ that they have been developed by the aid of selection from the minute scales and hairs with which the wings and body are covered and I came to the same conclusion with respect to those of the Coleoptera But Dr Gruber further shews that their development is in part directly due to the stimulus from the friction of one wing over the other

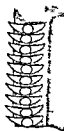


FIG 12 Teeth of the nervure of *Gryllus domesticus* (from Landois)

In the Locustidae the opposite wing-covers differ from each other in structure (fig 13) and the action cannot as in the last family be reversed The left wing which acts as the bow lies over the right wing which serves as the fiddle One of the nervures (a) on the under surface of the former is finely serrated and is scraped across the prominent nervures on the upper surface of the opposite or right wing In our British *Locusta arvensis* it appeared to me that the serrated nervure is rubbed against the rounded hind-corner of the opposite wing the edge of which is thickened coloured brown and very sharp In the right wing but not in the left there is a little plate as transverse tale surrounded by nervures, and called the peculiar In *Phyllotritum* a member of this same family we have a curious subordinate modification for the wing covers are greatly reduced in size but the posterior part of the pro-thorax is elevated into a kind of dome over the wing-covers and which

³²W. Wood Mod. Cl. of Insects 2

³³Locust. u. M. cl. d. l. at C. mp. French tr. n. s. lat. t. m. l. 1850 p. 567

³⁴Z. schreib. f. w. n. s. ch. ft. Zoolog. B. xvi. 1867 s. 117

³⁵W. Wood Mod. Cl. of Insects 2

³⁶U. b. d. r. T. pp. t. l. r. Loc. t. d. n. B. t. g. D. us 7. schreib. f. w. n. s. ch. ft. Zool. g. B. 1872, p. 100

that when one of the males begins to play he first bends the shank of the hind leg, beneath the thigh where it is lodged in a furrow designed to receive it and then draws the leg briskly up and down. He does not play both fiddles together but alternately first upon one and then on the other. In many species the base of the abdomen is hollowed out into a great cavity which is believed to act as a sounding l.

African ge

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tion in the males a small notched ridge projects obliquely from each side of the abdomen against which the hind femora are rubbed.

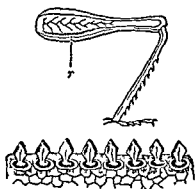


FIG. 14 Hind leg of *Stenobothrus pratorius* (from Lanolais) showing the teeth of the ridge on the femur (figure the teeth of the ridge on the femur).

As the male is furnished with wings (the female being wingless) it is remarkable that the thighs are not rubbed in the usual manner against the wing-covers but this may perhaps be accounted for by the unusually small size of the hind legs. I have not been able to examine the inner surface of the thighs which judging from analogy would be finely serrated. The species of *Leumora* have been more profoundly modified for the sake of stridulation than any other orthopterous insect for in the male the whole body has been converted into a musical instrument, being distended with air like a great pellucid bladder so as to increase the resonance. Mr. Trimen informs me that at the Cape of Good Hope these insects make a wonderful noise during the night.

In the three foregoing families the females are almost always destitute of an efficient musical apparatus. But there are a few exceptions to this rule for Dr. Gruber has shewn that both sexes of *Lophippiger titulus* are thus

provided though the organs differ in the male and female to a certain extent. Hence we cannot suppose that they have been transferred from the male to the female as appears to

Locustida (but not, according to Landois, in *Decticus*) the females have rudiments of the

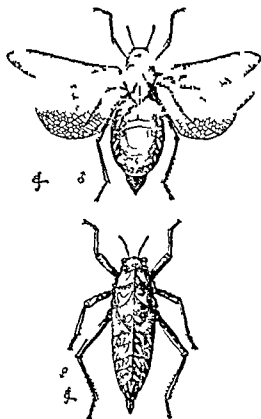


FIG. 15 Locustida (from Lanolais) the British Museum (upper figure male, lower figure female).

stridulatory organs proper to the male from whom it is probable that these have been transferred. Lanolais also found such rudiments on the inner surface of the wing-covers of the female *Acrididae* and on the femora of the female *Acrididae*. In the *Hemiptera*, also, the females have the proper musical apparatus in a functional state and we shall hereafter meet in other divisions of the animal kingdom with many instances of structures proper to the male being present in a rudimentary condition of the female.

Landois has observed another important

fact, namely that in the females the Acridæ, the tridentate teeth in the femora remain throughout in the same condition in which they first appear during the larval state in both sexes. In the males, on the other hand, they become further developed and acquire their perfect structure at the last moult, when the insect is mature and ready to breed.

From the facts now given we see that this means by which the males of the Orthoptera produce their sounds are extremely diversified, and are altogether different from those employed by the Homoptera. But throughout the animal kingdom we find the same object gained by the most diversified means; thus seems to show that organization changes in the course of ages, and as part after part acquires different special uses we are taken advantage of for the most rational purpose. The development of

With respect to colour some exotic locusts are beautifully ornamented; the posterior wings being marked with red, blue and black, but as throughout the Order the sexes rarely differ much in colour it is not probable that they with their brilliant sexual selection Contrary to colour may be of use to these insects, but generally the tints are unpalatable. This has been observed that a beautiful coloured Indian locust was in vain rejected when offered to birds and lizards. Some cases, however, are known of sexual differences in colour. Thus Order. The male of an American cricket is described as being as white as ivory, whilst the female varies from almost white to greenish yellow. Mr. Walsh informs us that the adult male of *Spectrum formicæ* (one of the Phasmidæ) "is of a silvery brownish yellow colour, the adult female being a dull opaque cinereous brown, the young of both sexes being green. Lastly, I may mention that the male of a curious kind of cricket is furnished with a long membranous appendage which falls over the face like a hood, the use of which may be as in the known ones.

Order NEUROPTERA. — Little need here be said except as to colour. In the Ephemeridæ the sexes often differ slightly in the obscure tints, but it is not probable that the males are thus rendered attractive to the females. The Libellulæ like the dragon flies, are ornamented with splendid green, blue and red, and in many talc tints and the sexes often differ. Thus, as Prof. Woodward remarks, "the males of some of the Agrionidæ are of a rich blue with black wings, whilst the females are fine green with colourless wings." But in *Agrion ramburi* these colours are exactly reversed in the two sexes. In the extreme American genus *Heterotarsus*, the males also have a beautiful carmine spot to the base of

Mr. Ch. Horne, *Proceedings of the Entomological Society of London* 1869 p. 12.

² The *Cicadula* also has a sexual difference. *Entomological Society of London*, 1862, p. 124. The sexes of *C. polycnemus* of Europe differ as I hear from Victor Carus, a nearly the same case.

³ Lat. bleunus Westwood, *Modern Classification*, vol. 1, p. 447.

⁴ B. D. Walsh, the Pseudo-neuroptera of Illinois, in *Proceedings of the Entomological Society of Philadelphia*, 1862, p. 361.

⁵ *Modern Classification*, vol. 1, p. 3. Walsh, *ibid.* p. 381. I am indebted to this naturalist for the following facts: *Heterotarsus*, *Anax*, and *Gomphus*.

fossil insect in the Devonian formation of New Brunswick, which furnished with the well-known tympanum stridulating apparatus of the male Locustidæ. This insect, which in most respects related to the Neuroptera, appears, as is so often the case with the ancient forms, to connect the two related Orders of the Neuroptera and Orthoptera.

I have little more to say on the Orthoptera. Some of the species are very gregarious, ten to male field-cricket (*Gryllus campestris*) are confined to the light till no other and the species of mantids are described as moving with their sword-like forelimbs, like Hussars with their sabres. The Chinese keep these insects in little bamboo cages, and match them like gamerocks.

Landou has recently found in certain Orthoptera rudimentary structures closely similar to the sound-producing organs in the Homoptera, and this is a surprising fact. See *Zeitschrift für wissenschaftliche Zoologie* B. 11, Heft 3, 1871, p. 348.

Transactions Entomological Society, 3rd series, vol. 1, *Journal of Proceedings*, p. 117.

Westwood, *Modern Classification of Insects*, vol. 1, p. 447 for *Cheta* p. 445.

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Insects L p 214

each wing. In *Anax junius* the basal part of the abdomen in the male is a vivid ultramarine blue and in the female grass green. In the allied genus *Gomphus* on the other hand and in some other genera the sexes differ but little in colour. In closely allied forms throughout the animal kingdom, similar cases of the sexes differing greatly or very little or not at all, are of frequent occurrence. Although there is so wide a difference in colour between the sexes of many Libellulidæ it is often difficult to say which is the more brilliant and the ordinary coloration of the two sexes is reversed as we have just seen in one species of *Agrion*. It is not probable that their colours in any case have been gained as a protection. Mr MacLachlan, who has closely attended to this family, writes to me that dragon flies—the tyrants of the insect world—are the least liable of any insect to be attacked by birds or other enemies, and he believes that their bright colours serve as a sexual attraction. Certain dragon flies apparently are attracted by particular colour. Mr Patterson observed² that the *Agrionidæ* of which the males are blue settled in numbers on the blue float of a fishing line whilst two other species were attracted by shining white colour.

It is an interesting fact first noticed by Selver that, in several genera belonging to two sub-families, the males on first emergence from the pupal state are coloured exactly like the females but that their bodies in a short time assume a conspicuous milky blue tint, owing to the exudation of a kind of oil soluble in ether and alcohol. Mr MacLachlan believes that in the male of *Libellula depressa* this change of colour does not occur until nearly a fortnight after the metamorphosis, when the sexes are ready to pair.

Certain species of *Neurothemis* present according to Brauer³ a curious case of dimorphism: some of the females having ordinary wings, whilst others have them very richly netted as in the males of the same species. Brauer explains the phenomenon on Darwinian principles by the supposition that the closing of the veins is a secondary sexual character in the males, which has been abruptly transferred to some of the females, instead of as generally occurs, to all of them. Mr MacLachlan informs me of another instance of dimorphism in several species of *Agrion*, in

which some individuals are of an orange colour and these are invariably females. This is probably a case of reversion for in the true Libellulæ when the sexes differ in colour the females are orange or yellow so that supposing *Agrion* to be descended from some primordial form which resembled the typical Libellulæ in its sexual characters, it would not be surprising that a tendency to vary in this manner should occur in the females alone.

Although many dragon flies are large, powerful and fierce insects, the males have not been observed by Mr MacLachlan to fight together excepting as he believes, in some of the smaller species of *Agrion*. In another group in this Order namely the termites or white ants both sexes at the time of swarming may be seen running about, the male after the female sometimes two chasing one female and contending with great eagerness who shall win the prize. "The *Atopos pulsatorius* is said to make a noise with its jaws which is answered by other individuals."

Order HYMENOPTERA.—That imitable observer M. Fabre⁴ in describing the habits of *Cerceris* a wasp-like insect remarks that fights frequently ensue between the males for the possession of some particular female, who to its apparently unconcerned beholder of the struggle for supremacy and when the victory is decided quietly flies away in company with the conqueror. Westwood⁵ says that the males of one of the saw flies (*Tenthredinæ*) have been found fighting together with their mandibles locked. As M. Fabre speaks of the males of *Cerceris* striving to obtain a particular female it may be well to bear in mind that insects belonging to this Order have the power of recognising each other after long intervals of time and are deeply attached. For instance Perre Huber whose accuracy no one doubts, separated some ants, and when after an interval of four months, they met others which had formerly belonged to the same community they recognised and caressed one another with their antennæ. Had they been strangers they would have fought together again when two communities encountered.

⁴Kilby's *Diptera*, Introduction to Entomology, 1814, p. 3.

⁵H. Westwood, *Et d. Le Faculté Mentale des Insectes*, p. 104.

⁶See n.

⁷J. n.

Sept. ~ 1863 p. 169

²Transactions E. Soc., 1836 p. lxxx.

³See abstract in the Zoological Record 1867 p. 430.

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Insects l p 214

Order COLEOPTERA (Beetles) — Many beetles are coloured so as to resemble the surfaces which they habitually frequent and they thus escape detection by their enemies. Other species for instance diamond beetles are ornamented with splendid colours which are often arranged in stripes spots crosses and other elegant patterns. Such colours can hardly serve directly as a protection except in the case of certain flower feeding species but they may serve as a warning or means of recognition on the same principle as the phosphorescence of the glow worm. As with beetles the colours of the two sexes are generally alike we have no evidence that they have been gained through sexual selection but this is at least possible for they have been developed in one sex and then transferred to the other and this view is even in some degree probable in those groups which possess other well marked secondary sexual characters. Blind beetles which cannot of course behold each other's beauty never as I hear from Mr Waterhouse Jr exhibit bright colours though they often have polished coats but the explanation of their obscurity may be that they generally inhabit caves and other obscure stations.

Some longicorns especially certain *Prion* id. offer an exception to the rule that the sexes of beetles do not differ in colour. Most of these insects are large and splendidly coloured. The males in the genus *Lyrodes* which I saw in Mr Bates's collection are generally redder but rather duller than the females the latter being coloured of a more or less splendid golden green. On the other hand in one species the male is golden green the female being richly tinted with red and purple. In the genus *Esmeralla* the sexes differ so greatly in colour that they have been ranked

as distinct species in one species both are of a beautiful shining green but the male has a red thorax. On the whole as far as I could judge the females of those *Lyrodes* in which the sexes differ are coloured more richly than the males and this does not accord with the common rule in regard to colour when acquired through sexual selection.

A most remarkable distinction between the sexes of many beetles is presented by the great horns which rise from the head thorax and clypeus of the males and in some few cases from the under surface of the body. These horns in the great family of the lamellicorns, resemble those of various quadrupeds such as stags rhinoceroses &c. and are wonderful both from their size and diversified shapes.

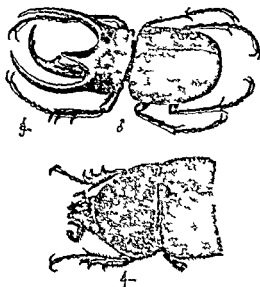
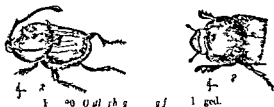


FIG 16 Chal. and Upper figure the (reduced) to figure female (12)

Instead of describing them I have given figures of the males and females of some of the more remarkable forms. (Figs. 10 to 10) The females generally exhibit r1

On the other hand the horns are nearly as well developed in the female as in the male *Ishanrus laevis* and only a little less well developed in the females of some other species of the genus and of *Copris*. I am informed by Mr Bates that the horns do not differ in any manner corresponding with the more important characteristic difference between the several subdivisions of the family thus with in the same section of the genus *Onit* *plagus*

FIG. 17 *C. prand* (Left h d figures, mal a.)FIG. 18 *Ph. narv f*FIG. 19 *D. pel eu t n*FIG. 20 *O. ul f h g*

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males have never been observed to fight nor could Mr Bates after a careful examination of numerous species find any sufficient evidence in their mutilated or broken condition of their having been thus used. If the males had been habitual fighters the size of their bodies would probably have been increased through sexual selection so as to have exceeded that of the females but Mr Bates after comparing the two sexes in above a hundred species of the Copridæ did not find any marked difference in this respect amongst well developed individuals. In *Lethrus* more over a beetle belonging to the same great division of the lamellicorns the males are known to fight but are not provided with horns though their mandibles are much larger than those of the female.



FIG 21 *Onitis fuscus* male viewed from the front

The conclusion that the horns have been acquired as ornaments is that which best agrees with the fact of their having been so

and by their extreme diversity in closely allied species. This view will at first appear extremely improbable but we shall hereafter find with many animals standing much higher in the scale namely fishes amphibians reptiles and birds that various kinds of crests knobs horns and combs have been developed apparently for this sole purpose.

The males of *Onitis fuscus* (fig 21) and of some other species of the genus are furnished with singular projections on their anterior femora and with a great fork or pair of horns on the lower surface of the thorax. Judging from other insects these may aid the male in clinging to the female. Although the males have not even a trace of a horn on the upper surface of the body yet the females plainly exhibit a rudiment of a single horn on the head (fig 22 a) and of a crest (b) on the thorax. That the slight thoracic crest in the female is a

rudiment of a projection proper to the male though entirely absent in the female.

— a small slight crest on the thorax and the male bears a great projection in the same situation. So again there can hardly be a doubt that the little point (a) on the head of the female *Onitis fuscus* as well as on the head of the females of two or three allied species is a rudimentary representative of the cephalic horn which is common to the males of so many lamellicorn beetles as in *Phanæus* (fig 18).



The old belief that rudiments have been created to complete the scheme of nature is here so far from holding good that we have a complete inversion of the ordinary state of things in the family. We may reasonably suspect that the males originally bore horns and transferred them to the females in a rudimentary condition as in so many other lamellicorns. Why the males subsequently lost their horns we know not but this may have been caused through the principle of compensation owing to the development of the large horns and projections on the lower surface and as these are confined to the males the rudiments of the upper horns on the females would not have been thus obliterated.

The cases hitherto given refer to the lamellicorns but the males of some few other beetles belonging to two widely distinct groups namely the Curculionidae and Staphylinidae are furnished with horns—in the former on the lower surface of the body and in the latter on the head and of the same nature as just as we have seen with the lamellicorns. Hence the present study of the history of the

corns. In *Siaonum* we have a case of dimorphism, the males can be divided into two sets, differing greatly in the size of the bodies and in the development of the horns, without intermediate gradations. In a species

smaller one until he resigned his pretensions. A friend informs me that when a boy has often put the males to the test in fight, and he noticed that they were much bolder and fiercer than the females, as was the high and small. The males would seize hold of his finger if held near from the thumb to the little finger, although the females, although the males of many of the Lucanidae as well as of the above mentioned *Lepidoptera* have large mandibles and powerful insects than the females. The two sexes of *Lethrus phallos* (one of the lamellicorns) inhabit the same burrow and the male has larger mandibles than the female. If during the breeding season, a strange



FIG. 23. *Eledus laurina*, magnified. Left hand figure male right hand figure female.

of Bledius (fig. 23) also belonging to the Staphilinidae Professor Westwood states that male specimens can be found in the same locality in which the central horn of the thorax is very large but the horns of the head quite rudimentary and the horns, in which the racic horns are short whilst the protuberances on the head are large. However, apparently in a case of compensation, with the throw light that they gain, with the proposed loss of the pipe horns both males and females.

Law of Battle.—Some male beetles, which seem ill-fitted for fighting, nevertheless engage in conflicts for the possession of the females. Mr. Wallace saw two males of *Leptohynchus angustatus* in a beetle with much longated rostrum fighting for a female which took leave but the boring they pushed at each other with their rostra, and laved and thumped upon the ground in great rage. The smaller male however soon afterwards acknowledged himself conquered. In some few cases male beetles are well adapted for

is a case in which the *Stenus cicuticorus* in pairs, and seem much attached to each other the male excites the females to roll the

are tremulous both in size and structure and in this respect resemble the horns of the head and the rax of many male lamellicorns and Staphilinidae. A perfect series can be formed from the best provided to the worst provided of the great males. Although the mandibles of the common tag beetle and probably many of the species, are used as effective weapons for fighting, it is doubtful whether the greater size can thus be accounted for. We have seen that they are used by the *L. laphus* of America for seizing the female. As they are so conspicuous and so elegant in branched and as owing to the great length they are not well adapted for punching, the up-close has crossed my mind that they may in addition serve as an ornament, like the horns of the head and the rax of the various species also described. The male *Chasmodon*

from the parental also a week before the sex, so that several may often be seen pursuing the same female. At this season they engage in fierce conflicts. When Mr. A. H. D. was enclosed two males with a female in a box, the larger male severely pinched the

Modern Classification of Insects, vol. 1, p. 12. *Siaonum*, p. 12. In the British Museum I received one male specimen of *Siaonum* intermediate between the two so that the dimorphism is not strict. The Malay tree pelago, vol. 11, 1869, p. 276. Riley with a report on insects of Museo, vol. 1, p. 113.

Entomological Magazine, vol. 1, 1833, p. 82. See also the conflicts of this species, Kirby and Pierce, *ibid.*, vol. 11, p. 314. Westwood, *ibid.*, vol. 1, p. 157.

Quoted from Fischer in *Dict. Class. d'Hist. Nat.*, tom. 1, p. 324.

4. See *Entomolog. F.* 1866 as quoted in *Journal of T.* ed by A. Murray 1868, p. 135.

thus grantii of S Chile—a splendid beetle belonging to the same family—has enormously developed mandible (fig 24) he is bold and pugnacious when threatened he faces round



FIG 24 *Clagnithus grantii* red ced Up-
per figure male lower figure female

opens 11

Sexual selection which implies the possession of considerable perceptive powers and of strong passions seems to have been more effective with the lamellicorns than with any other family of beetles. With some species the males are provided with weapons for fighting some live in pairs and show mutual affection many have the power of stridulating when excited many are furnished with the most extraordinary horns apparently for the sake of ornament and some which are diurnal in their habits are gorgeously coloured. Lastly

several of the largest beetles in the world belong to this family which was placed by Linnaeus and Fabricius as the head of the Order.

Stridulating organs—Beetles belonging to many and widely distinct families possess these organs. The sound thus produced can sometimes be heard at the distance of several feet or even yards but it is not comparable with that made by the Orthoptera. The rasp generally consists of a narrow slightly raised surface crossed by very fine parallel ribs, sometimes so fine as to cause indescendent colours and having a very elegant appearance under the microscope. In some cases as with *Typhaeus* minute bristly or scale like prominences with which the whole surrounding surface is covered in approximately parallel lines could be traced passing into the ribs of the rasp. The transition takes place by their becoming confluent and straight and at the same time more prominent and smooth. A hard ridge on an adjoining part of the body serves as the scraper for the rasp but this scraper in some cases has been specially modified for the purpose. It is rapidly moved across the rasp or conversely the rasp across the scraper.

two rasps (r fig 2) stand on the dorsal surface of the fifth abdominal segment each rasp consisting of 126 to 140 fine ribs. These ribs are scraped against the posterior margins of the elytra a small portion of which projects beyond the general outline. In many *Crioceridæ* and in *Clathra punctata* (one of the Chrysomelidæ) and in some *Teichionidæ* the rasp is seated on the dorsal apex of the abdomen.

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⁷ m d bted t M Walsh t lll s, f
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fully elongated in the male) makes whilst moving a low hissing sound by the protrusion and contraction of the abdomen and when seized it produces a grating sound by rubbing its hind legs against the elytra.

By rubbing the shagreened surface of the femur against the granulated margin of the corresponding elytron but I could not here detect any proper rasp.

As has been written about this beetle it seems very doubtful whether it possesses any true rasp though it has the power of emitting a sound.

From the analogy of the Orthoptera and Homoptera I expected to find the stridulating organs in the Coleoptera differing according to sex but Landois who has carefully examined several species observed no such difference nor did Westring nor did Mr G R Crotch in preparing the many specimens which he had the kindness to send me. Any difference in these organs if slight would however be difficult to detect on account of their great variability. Thus in the first pair of specimens of *Necrophorus humator* and of *Ileobius* which I examined the rasp was considerably larger in the male than in the female.

More prominent in three males than in the same number of females in order therefore to discover whether the sexes differed in their power of stridulating my son Mr F Darwin collected fifty seven living specimens which he separated into two lots according as they made a greater or less noise when held in the same manner. He then examined all these specimens and found that the males were very nearly in the same proportion to the females in both the lots. Mr F Smith has kept alive numerous specimens of *Monochus pseudocori* (Curculionidae) and is convinced that both sexes stridulate and apparently in an equal degree.

Nevertheless the power of stridulating is certainly a sexual character in some few Coleoptera. Mr Crotch discovered that the males alone of two species of Hebeptelides (Tenebrionidae) possess stridulating organs. I examined five males of *H. gibbus* and in all of these there was a well-developed rasp partially

divided into two on the dorsal surface of the terminal abdominal segment whilst in the same number of females there was not even a rudiment of the rasp. The membrane of this segment being transparent and much thinner than in the male. In *H. cribratostriatus* the male has a similar rasp excepting that it is not partially divided into two portions, and the female is completely destitute of this organ. The male in addition has on the anal

resembling those on the abdominal rasp whether these ridges serve as an independent rasp or as a scraper for the abdominal rasp I could not decide. The female exhibits no trace of this latter structure.

Again in three species of the *Ileobius*

but the chief difference is that the whole upper surface of this segment when held in the proper light is seen to be clothed with hairs, which are absent or are represented by excessively fine down in the males. It should be noted that in all Coleoptera the effective part of the rasp is destitute of hairs. In *O. senegalensis* the difference between the sexes is more strongly marked and this is best seen when the proper abdominal segment is cleared and viewed as a transparent object. In the female the whole surface is covered with little separate crests bearing spines whilst in the male these crests in proceeding towards the apex become more and more confluent regular and naked so that three fourths of the segment is covered with extremely fine parallel ribs which are quite absent in the female. In the females, however of all the three species of *Oryctes*, a slight grating or stridulating sound is produced when the abdomen of a softened specimen is pushed backwards and forwards.

In the case of the *Heliophanes* and *Oryctes*

cape by striking the hollow trunks of trees in the Canary Islands. Messrs. Willaston and Crotch were able to discover the presence of beetles belonging to the genus *Acallus* by their stridulations. Lastly the male *Ateuchus* stridulates to encourage the female to hew the wood, and from distress which he is reminded of. Some naturalists believe that beetles make these sounds to frighten away their enemies, but I cannot think that a quadruped would be able to do

so. A large beetle would be frightened by so slight a sound. The belief that the stridulation serves as a sexual call is supported by the fact that death-ticks (*Idolus* and *Illudius*) are well known to answer each other by tickings and as

found hounded with a male and on occasions surrounded by several males. Finally it is probable that the two sexes of many kinds of beetles were at first obliged to find each other by the high whistling noise produced by the rubbing together of the adjoining hard parts of their bodies and that as those males or females which made the greatest noise succeeded better in finding partners, ruggedness on various parts of their bodies were gradually developed by means of sexual selection into true stridulations.

duced by the insect raising itself as high as it could and striking its thorax with

M. P. de la Brul has quoted *J. rnal f*
J. de Murray L.L., 1868, p. 133
 According to Mr. D. Bleday this use is pro-

duced by the insect raising itself as high as it could and striking its thorax with the hind legs. *P. m. l. tris* produces rattling sounds by striking its body against the hard surface of the thorax. In this call, sometimes heard by the pair

INSECTS—ORDER LEIDOPTERA

СЛАП XI

gauge suffices to describe the splendour of the
males of some tropical species. Even with the
same genus we find peculiar presen-
ting extraordinary differences between the
sexes, whilst others have the sexes closely
alike. So the American genus *Ep-*

In the genus *Papilio*, all the species of the *Aeneas* group are remarkable for the very conspicuous and strongly contrasted colours, and it is almost a constant tendency to gradation in the male and female between the sexes.

On the whole, the two sexes of the species, the two sexes of the whole

the species resemble each other and reduce the
of colors, etc. in certain species.

species the males rank among the most brilliant of all birds, and differ so greatly from the comparatively plain male that they were formerly placed distinct. The females of this species resemble each other in their alternate coloring and they likewise resemble both sexes of the species seen allied genera. On parts of the world however, it is found that these numerous species, and probably with their races, are descended from an ancestral form which was colored in early the same manner. The tenth species the female still retains the same general coloring, but the male resembles her so that the colored under male is suggested and contrasted more than the males of the previous species. In this the animal with the species, the female is part from the alternate they are equally decorated almost like the male, but not somewhat less degree. Hence in the set of the species the bright colors of the males seem to have been transferred to the female with the tenth species the male has the retained recorded the pigments of the female as well as the part of the of the genus. These are in these three cases have been rendered very alike though in an opposite manner. In the allied genera Eubaeus, both sexes of some of the species are plain colored and early alike with the greater number of the male recorded with less of the tall tinted and colored manner and differ much from the female. The female through the retain the same coloring of the color, so that they resemble another male more closely than they resemble the female.

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see also M. B. Lespape, Proc. Ent. Soc. of Philadelphia, 1863, p. 28. Also M. Wallace the same subject, regard to Diadema, Transactions Entomological Society London, 1869 p. 278.

man species, as a warning that they are unpalatable. In certain cases, beauty has been gained through the mutation of the beautiful species, which inhabit the same district and enjoy an immunity from attack by being in some way different to their enemies. Both have to account for the beauty of the imitated species.

As Mr Walsh has remarked to me that

ours of the parent species of the genus for both sexes if the female is differently coloured species are coloured in early the same manner. As in several previous cases, we may here infer that the males of the *damne* and *grana* which have departed from the usual type of the genus. In the *Anth* from Cal

som the respects. In an allied Indian form, the *Iphia* as glaucippe the wings are fully developed in both sexes. In this *Iphia*, a

up the dorsal face resembles the hind

posed the bright and of the same purpose, especially when this character is confined to the males.

Most in this respect must also during the whole great part of the day with the wings depressed and the whole upper surface shaded and coloured in an admirable manner. Mr Wallace has remarked of scapoid tecton. The froth of the Bombycidae, when resting, rally lap and conceal the hind wings so that the latter might be brightly coloured with the checkered and they are in fact thus coloured during flight, in this way often being able to escape from their enemies. It is less, as the hind wings are fully exposed with the bright colours must generally have been acquired to some little risk. But the following facts show how this

would be in drawing conclusions on this head. The common yellow underwings (*Tripharna*) fly about during the day early in the morning and are then conspicuous from the colour of the hind wings. It would naturally be thought that this would be a source of danger to Mr J. J. E. W. R. but that it actually serves them as a means of escape for

rous specimen of *Tripharna* p. la, which was instantly pursued by a robin but the bird's attention being caught by the coloured wings the insect was captured until after about fifty attempts, and all portions of the wings were repeatedly broken off. It tried the same experiment, in the presence of the swallow and *T. fimbria*, but the large size of this insect probably helped it to escape. It was thus enabled to escape from the net made by Mr Wallace namely that the Brazilian forests and Malay islands, many common and highly-decorated butterflies are weak flyers, though furnished with a load of panes of wing and they are often captured with the net and broken wings, as if they had been seized by the bird from which they had escaped. If the wings had been much smaller in proportion to the body, it seems probable that the insect would more frequently have been truckered in a vital part, and thus the increased expanse of the wings may have been unduly beneficial.

Display.—The bright colours of many butterflies and of some moths are specially arranged for display so that they may be readily seen. During the night colours are not visible and there can be no doubt that the nocturnal moth, taken as a body, are much less gaily decorated than butterflies, all of which are diurnal in their habits. But in the certain families, as the *Zygaenidae*, some *Sphinxidae*, *Uranidae*, some *Arctidae* and *Burnsiidae*, fly about during the day early in the morning, and many of these are extremely beautiful, being far brighter coloured than the strictly nocturnal kinds. A few exceptional cases, however, of brightly coloured nocturnal species have been recorded.

See the territorial beer lions by T. W. Wood, the *Nature*, Sept. 1868, p. 81.
Mr Wallace. *H. deuck* *Science Gossip*, September 1867, p. 193.

See also, this object, Mr W. R. paper in *Transactions Entomological Society* 1869, p. 23.
In *Nature* Review July 1867, p. 16.
In *Nature* Review July 1867, p. 16.
(*Modern Class of Insects* of 11, p. 390) seem to

There is evidence of another kind in regard to display Butterflies as before remarked elevate their wings when at rest but whilst basking in the sunshine often alternately raise and depress them thus exposing both surfaces to full view and although the lower surface is often coloured in an obscure manner as a protection yet in many species it is as highly decorated as the upper surface and sometimes in a very different manner In some tropical species the lower surface is even more brilliantly coloured than the upper ¹⁵ In the English fritillaries (*Argynnis*) the lower surface alone is ornamented with shining silver Nevertheless as a general rule the upper surface which is probably more fully exposed is coloured more brightly and diversely than the lower Hence the lower surface generally affords to entomologists the more useful character for detecting the affinities of the various species Fritz Müller informs me that three species of *Castnia* are found near his house in S. Brazil of two of them the hind wings are obscure and are always covered by the front wings when these butterflies are at rest but the third species has black hind wings beautifully spotted with red and white and these are fully expanded and displayed whenever the butterfly rests Other such cases could be added

If we now turn to the enormous group of moths which as I hear from Mr Stainton do not habitually expose the under surface of their wings to full view we find this side very rarely coloured with a brightness greater than or even equal to that of the upper side Some exceptions to the rule either real or apparent must be noticed as the case of *Hypopyra* ¹ Mr Trimen informs me that in Guenee's great work three moths are figured in which the under surface is much the more brilliant For instance in the Australian *Gastrophora* the upper surface of the fore wing is pale greyish ochraceous while the lower surface is magnificently ornamented by an ocellus of cobalt blue placed in the midst of a black mark surrounded by orange yellow and this by bluish white

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See Mr W r m a l d o n t h i s m t h P o e d g f
t h e E n t o m o l o g i c a l S o c i e t y M a r c h 2, 1868

But the habits of these three moths are unknown so that no explanation can be given of their unusual style of colouring Mr Trimen also informs me that the lower surface of the wings in certain other *Geometre*¹⁷ and quadrid *Noctue* are either more variegated or more brightly coloured than the upper surface but some of these species have the habit of holding their wings quite erect over their backs, retaining them in this position for a considerable time and thus exposing the under surface to view Other species when settled on the ground or herbage now and then suddenly and slightly lift up their wings Hence the lower surface of the wings being brighter than the upper surface in certain moths is not so anomalous as it at first appears The *Saturniæ* include some of the most beautiful of all moths, their wings being decorated as in our British emperor moth with fine ocelli and Mr T W Wood¹⁸ observes that they resemble butterflies in some of their movements for instance in

the case with many brilliant butterflies The male however of one American moth the *Saturnia io* is described as having its fore wings deep yellow curiously marked with purplish red spots whilst the wings of the fe

low tints or nearly white In several species the males are much darker than the females¹⁹

¹ See also an account of the American genus
Eratena (n. f. the *Geometre*) *T. nsacio*
E. t. Soc. n. w. r. l. p. l. s. n. d.
P. o. c. Ent. Soc. of London July 6 1863 p. 1.
H. a. s. T. e. a. t. e. d. e. d. t. e. d. b. y. F. l. t. 1862, p.

f r m m t h t w h r h h b e l s n

d M S t a t b s e e d t h t t h u l t t e r m t h a s
r j c t e d w t h u t t d u s t u r b y a w h o l e b r o o d f
3 g t u r k y s, w h c h r e f o n d f t u n g t h e r

and these belong to groups which generally fly about during the afternoon. On the other hand in the *terrestris*, as Mr. Stainton informs me, the males have the hind wings whiter than those of the female—of which fact *Agrotis erichsonii* offers good instance. In the ghost-moth (*Hypocrita hirsuta*) the difference is more strongly marked the males being white, and the females black with dark markings.²¹ It is probable that in these cases the males are thus rendered more conspicuous, and more easily seen by the females whilst flying about in the dusk.

From the several foregoing facts it is impossible to admit that the brilliant colours of butterflies, and of some of the moths, have commonly been acquired for the sake of protection. We have seen that their colours and elegant patterns are arranged and exhibited as if for display. Hence I am led to believe that the females prefer or are most attracted by the more brilliant males for on any other supposition the males would, as far as we can see, be ornamented to no purpose. We know that ants and certain lamellicorn beetles are capable of feeling an attachment for each other and that ants recognise their fellow after an interval of several months. If nevertheless there is no abstract improbability in the Lepidoptera, which probably stand nearly quit as high in the scale as these insects, having sufficient mental capacity to acquire bright colours. They certainly discover flowers by colour. The humming-bird sphinx may often be seen to swoop down from distance on a bunch of flowers in the midst of green foliage and I have been assured by two persons abroad, that these moths repeatedly visit flowers painted on the walls of a room, and vainly endeavour to insert their proboscis into them. Fritz Müller informs us that several kinds of butterflies in Brazil show an unmistakable preference for certain colours and others have observed that they fly often to visit the brilliant red flowers of *Strophilium* or six

genera of plants, but never the white or yellow flowering species of the same and other genera, growing in the same garden and I have received other accounts to the same effect. As I hear from Mr. Doubleday the common white butterfly flies down to a bit of paper on

or in the Malacca Archipelago, states that a dead specimen pinned upon a conspicuous twig will often arrest an insect of the same species in its headlong flight, and bring it down within reach of the net, especially if it be of the opposite sex.

The courtship of butterflies is, as before remarked, a prolonged affair. The males sometimes flit to and fro in air and many may be seen pursuing or crowding round the same female. Unless, then, the females prefer a male to another, the pairing must be left to chance and not with does not appear probable.

males, in some cases, are rendered red brighter by dyes, and will have been transmitted to both sexes or to one sex according to the law of inheritance which has prevailed. The process of sexual selection will have been much facilitated, if the conclusion can be trusted, arrived at from an examination of the population in the ninth chapter, namely that the males of many Lepidoptera, at least in the imago state, greatly exceed the females in number.

Some facts, however, are opposed to the belief that the male butterflies prefer the more beautiful males thus, as I have been assured by several collectors, fresh females may frequently be seen paired with badly red faded, dingy males but this is a circumstance which could hardly fail often to follow from the males emerging from their cocoons earlier than the females. With moths of the family of the Bombycidae, the sexes pair immediately after assuming the imago state if they can not feed, win to the rudimentary condition of their mothers. The females, as several entomologists have remarked to me, are in an almost torpid state and appear not to choose the last choice in regard to their partners. This is the case with the common silk moth (*Bombyx mori*) as I have been told by some continental and English breeders. Dr. Wallace who has had

Revue of Nature in the Chinese Seas, 1868, p. 182.

moths, so that if the *Cyrena* was commonly mistaken by British birds for the palaeosoma, it would escape being devoured, and so to have deceptive colour would thus be highly beneficial.

It is remarkable, that in the Wetland Islands the male of this moth, instead of differing widely from the female, frequently resembles her closely in colour (see Mr. MacLachlan, *Transactions Entomological Society*, vol. x. 1866, p. 459). Mr. G. Fraser suggests (Nature, April, 1871, p. 459) that at the season of the year when the ghost moth appears in these northern islands, the luminousness of the males could not be needed to render them visible to the females in the night.

great experience in breeding *Bombyx cynthia* is convinced that the females evince no choice or preference. He has kept above 200 of these moths together and has often found the most vigorous females mated with stunted males. The reverse appears to occur seldom, for as he believes the more vigorous males pass over the weakly females and are attracted by those endowed with most vitality. Nevertheless the Bombycidae though obscurely coloured are often beautiful to our eyes from their elegant and mottled shades.

I have as yet only referred to the species in which the males are brighter coloured than the females, and I have attributed their beauty to the females for many generations having chosen and paired with the more attractive males. But converse cases occur though rarely in which the females are more brilliant than the males, and here as I believe the males have selected the more beautiful females and have thus slowly added to their beauty. We do not know why in various classes of males of

as seems to be the general rule in the animal kingdom, but if contrary to what generally occurs with the Lepidoptera the females were much more numerous than the males the latter would be likely to pick out the more beautiful females. Mr. Butler shewed me several species of *Callidryas* in the British Museum in some of which the females equalled and in others greatly surpassed the males in beauty, for the females alone have the borders of their wings suffused with crimson and orange and spotted with black. The plainer males of these species closely resemble each other, shewing that here the females have been modified, whereas in those cases where the males are the more ornate it is these which have been modified, the females remaining closely alike.

In England we have some analogous cases though not so marked. The females alone of two species of *Phicla* have a bright purple or orange patch on their fore wings. In *Hipparchia* the sexes do not differ much, but it is the female of *H. janira* which has a conspicuous light brown patch on her wings, and the females of some of the other species are brighter coloured than their males. Again the female of *Colias edusa* and *hyale* have orange or yellow spots on the black marginal border represented in the males only by thin streaks, and in *Pieris* it is the females which are ornate

mented with black spots on the fore-wings, and these are only partially present in the males. Now the males of many butterflies are known to support the females during their marriage flight, but in the species just named it is the females which support the males so that the

play is re-
l throughout
s usually take
the more active share in wooing and their beauty seems to have been increased by the females having accepted the more attractive individuals, but with these butterflies, the females take the more active part in the final marriage ceremony, so that we may suppose that they likewise do so in the wooing, and in this case we can understand how it is that they have been rendered the more beautiful. Mr. Meldola, from whom the foregoing statements have been taken, says in conclusion, "Though I am not convinced of the action of sexual selection in producing the colours of insect, it cannot be denied that these facts are strikingly corroborative of Mr. Darwin's views."

As sexual selection primarily depends on variability, a few words must be added on this subject. In respect to colour there is no difficulty for any number of highly variable Lepidoptera could be named. One good instance will suffice. Mr. Bates shewed me a large series of specimens of *Papilio sesostris* and *Ichidryas*, in the latter the males varied much in the extent of the beautifully enamelled green patch on the fore wings, and in the size of the white mark, and of the splendid crimson stripe on the hind wing.

less beautiful than of *P. chidryas*, and it likewise varies a little in the size of the green patch on the fore wing, and in the occasional appearance of the small crimson stripe on the hind wings, borrowed as it would seem from its own female, for the females of this and of *n*

small interval, and it was evident that as far as mere variability is concerned there would

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be no difficulty in permanently increasing the variety of each species by means of selection. The variability is here almost confined to the male sex but Mr Wallace and Mr Bates have shown that the females of some species are extremely variable the males being nearly constant. In future chapters I shall have occasion to show that the beautiful like spots, ocelli, and in the wings of many Lepidoptera, are mutually variable. I may here add that these ocelli afford a difficulty in the theory of sexual selection of the high appearing to us so remarkable, there are no present in sex and absent in the other in do they differ much in the two sexes? This fact is at present inexplicable but if it should hereafter be found that the formation of an ocellus is due to some change in the

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alone.

On the whole, although many serious objections may be urged, it seems probable that most of the brilliant coloured species of Lepidoptera with their colours of sexual selection, excepting in certain cases, presently to be mentioned in which conspicuous colours have been gained through mimicry as protection. From the ardour of the male throughout the animal kingdom, he is generally willing to accept any female and it is the female which usually retains choice. Hence if sexual selection has been efficient with the Lepidoptera, the male with these sexes ought to be the more brilliantly coloured and thus undoubtedly is the case. When both sexes are brilliantly coloured and resemble each other the characters acquired by the males appear to have been transmitted to both. We are led to this conclusion by cases, within the same genus, of gradations from an extraordinary amount of difference in adultity in colour to the two sexes.

But it may be asked why the difference in colour between the sexes may not be ac-

in common by nature. It is the reflection of possible that different conditions of life may have acted directly on the two sexes but this is not probable as in the adult state they are exposed to different conditions during a very short period and the larvae of both are exposed to the same conditions. Mr Wallace believes that the difference between the sexes is due to so much that the males have been modified as the female having in all cases most all cases acquired dull colours for the sake of protection. It seems to me on the contrary far more probable that it is the males which have been chiefly modified through sexual selection, the females having been comparatively little changed. We can thus understand how it is that the females of allied species usually resemble more than so much

the variety belonging. They have, however, almost always been somewhat modified by the transmission of the male's success in variation, through the accumulation of which the males were rendered beautiful. But I do not wish to deny that the females alone of some species may have been peculiarly modified for protection. In most cases the males and females of distinct species will have been exposed during the prolonged larval state to different conditions, and may have been thus affected though with the males any slight change of colour thus caused will generally have been marked by the brilliant tints gained through sexual selection. When we treat of birds, I shall have to discuss the whole question, as to how far the differences in colour between the sexes are due to the males having been modified through sexual selection for ornamental purposes, to the females having been modified through natural selection for the sake of protection, so that I will here say but little on this subject.

In all the cases in which the more common form of equal resemblance by both sexes has

H. W. Bates, *The Naturalist in the Amazon*, vol. II, 1863, p. 228. A. R. Wallace, in *Transactions of the Linnean Society*, 1857, p. 10.

On this whole subject see *The Variation of Animals and Plants under Domestication*, 1868, vol. II, chap. XXII.

Wallace, the *Pulioidea* of the Malaya Region. *Transactions of the Linnean Society*, 1863, pp. 8, 36. I think a case of rare variety strictly intermediate between the other well-marked female varieties, given by Mr Wallace. See also Mr Bates, *Journal of Entomology*, 1866, p. 11. Mr Bates as so kind as to lay the subject before the Entomological Society and I have received answers to this effect from several entomologists.

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weakly females and are attracted by those endowed with most vitality. Nevertheless the Bombycidae though obscurely coloured are often beautiful to our eyes from their elegant and mottled shades.

I have as yet only referred to the species in which the males are brighter coloured than the females and I have attributed their beauty to the females for many generations having chosen and paired with the more attractive males. But converse cases occur though rarely in which the females are more brilliant than the males and here as I believe the males have selected the more beautiful females and have thus slowly added to their beauty. We do not know why in various classes of animals the males of some few species have selected the more beautiful females instead of having gladly accepted any female as seems to be the general rule in the animal kingdom but if contrary to what generally occurs with the Lepidoptera the females were much more numerous than the males the latter would be likely to pick out the more beautiful females. Mr Butler shewed me several species of Callidryas in the British Museum in some of which the females equalled and in others greatly surpassed the males in beauty for the females alone have the borders of their wings suffused with crimson and orange and spotted with black. The plainer males of these species closely resemble each other shewing that here the females have been modified whereas in those cases where the males are the more ornate it is these which have been modified the females remaining closely alike.

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that the part which the two sexes play is reversed as is their relative beauty. Through out the animal kingdom the males commonly take the more active share in wooing and their beauty seems to have been increased by the females having accepted the more attractive individuals but with these butterflies, the females take the more active part in the final marriage ceremony so that we may suppose that they likewise do so in the wooing and in this case we can understand how it is that they have been rendered the more beautiful. Mr Meldola from whom the foregoing statements have been taken says in conclusion "Though I am not convinced of the action of sexual selection in producing the colours of insects, it cannot be denied that these facts are strikingly corroborative of Mr Darwin's views."

As sexual selection primarily depends on variability subject

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son stripe on the hind wings borrowed as would seem from its own female for the females of this and of many other species in the *Ancas* group possess this crimson stripe. Hence between the brightest specimens of *I. sesostris* and the dullest of *I. chidrenar* there was but a small interval and it was evident that as far as mere variability is concerned there would

amply confirmed especially by M. Belt. Hence M. B. is infirmed that the butterfly which imitates the protected species has acquired this presence mainly by deceptive appearance through variation and natural selection, in order to be mistaken for the protected kinds, and thus escape being destroyed. No explanation is here attempted of the brilliant colours of the imitated butterfly, but only of the manner of its resemblance. We must account

for the fact that the females alone imitate brilliantly-coloured and protected species, the male retaining the normal aspect of their summed to colour. It is here by us that the selective variation by which the female has been modified has been transmitted to the male. It is, however, probable that some of the imitative variations would have

Bates paper on mimicry and equilibrium in the facts have been observed by Mr. Wallace in the Malayan region by Mr. T. in South Africa, and by Mr. R. in the United States.

As some writers have felt much difficulty in understanding how the first steps in the process of mimicry could have been effected through natural selection, it may be well to remark that the process probably commenced long ago between forms not widely dissimilar in colour. In this case, a slight variation would be beneficial if it deterred the persecutors. In the end, and afterward, the imitated species might be modified to an extent, and even through sexual selection, to such an extent, and if the change were gradual, the mutations might easily be led along the same track until they differed to an equally great extent from their original and then they would then ultimately assume an

appearance which was from the first strictly limited in its transmissibility to the male sex. With a partial illustration of these remarks in a statement by Mr. B. that the males of some of the *Leptalis*, which imitate protected species, still retain in a concealed manner some of their original characters. Thus in the males the upper half of the lower wing is of pure white, whilst all the rest of the wings is barred and spotted with black, red, and yellow. Like the species they mimic, the females have not thus white patches, and the male usually conceals this by covering it with the upper wing so that it cannot be seen, thus being in this use to them than as an attractant in connection with their exhibit to the females.

many species of Lepidoptera are liable to concealment and abrupt variation in colour. A few instances have been given in this chapter, and many more may be found in the papers of M. B. and M. Wallace.

These all species of the sex are alike and imitate the two sexes of another species. B. T. M. Trimble gives, in the paper already referred to, three cases, which the sex of the imitated form differs from each other in colour, and the sexes of the imitating form differ in like manner. In all cases, however, also been re-

Bright Colours of Catrillia.—Whilst reflecting on the beauty of many butterflies, it occurred to me that some caterpillars were peculiarly coloured and as sexual selection could not possibly have reacted to produce such a striking beauty of the mature insect, the agency would be the bright colours of the larvae could be somehow explained. In the first place, it may be observed that the colours of caterpillars do not stand in close correlation with the sex of the mature insect. Secondly, the bright colour of the caterpillar does not serve in any ordinary manner as protection. M. B. and Trimble, as an instance of this, the caterpillar of the catrillia which is black and (that of the phoenix) is red and yellow. I found a tree in the peninsula of South America, it was about 10 feet high, and was very heavily banded with black and yellow, and with its head, legs, and tail of a bright red. I need not give the name of any one who passed by, nor the distance of many yards, and noted both the rypas gird

The Catrillia *Agua*, 1874, p. 385

prevailed the election of bright-coloured males would tend to make the females bright coloured and the selection of dull-coloured females would tend to make the males dull. If both processes were carried on simultaneously they would tend to counteract each other and the final result would depend on whether a greater number of females from being well protected by obscure colours or a greater number of males by being brightly-coloured and thus finding partners succeeded in leaving more numerous offspring.

In order to account for the frequent transmission of characters to one sex alone Mr Wallace expresses his belief that the more common form of equal inheritance by both sexes can be changed through natural selection into inheritance by one sex alone but in favour of this view I can discover no evidence. We know from what occurs under domestication that new characters often appear which from the first are transmitted to one sex alone and by the selection of such variations there would not be the slightest difficulty in giving bright colours to the males alone and at the same time or subsequently dull colours to the females alone. In this manner the females of some butterflies and moths have it is probable been rendered inconspicuous for the sake of protection and widely different from their males.

I am however unwilling without distinct evidence to admit that two complex processes of selection each requiring the transference of new characters to one sex alone have been carried on with a multitude of species—that the males have been rendered more brilliant by beating their rivals and the females more dull coloured by having escaped from their enemies. The male for instance of the common brimstone butterfly (*Gonepteryx*) is of a far more intense yellow than the female though she is equally conspicuous and it does not seem probable that she specially acquired her pale tints as a protection though it is probable that the male acquired his bright colours as a sexual attraction. The female of *Anthocharis cardamines* does not possess the beautiful orange wing tips of the male consequently she closely resembles the white butterflies (Pieris) so common in our gardens but we have no evidence that this resemblance is beneficial to her. As, on the other hand she resembles both sexes of several other species of the genus inhabiting various quarters of the world it is probable that she has simply re-

tained to a large extent her primordial colours.

Finally as we have seen various considerations lead to the conclusion that with the greater number of brilliantly-coloured Lepidoptera it is the male which has been chiefly modified through sexual selection the amount of difference between the sexes mostly depending on the form of inheritance which has prevailed. Inheritance is governed by so many unknown laws or conditions that it seems to

ess of variation are necessarily transmitted

at all between the sexes of allied species. These cases of gradation it may be added are much too common to favour the supposition that we here see females actually undergoing the process of transition and losing their brightness for the sake of protection for we have every reason to conclude that at any one time the greater number of species are in a fixed condition.

Mimicry.—This principle was first made clear in an admirable paper by Mr Bates,* who thus threw a flood of light on many obscure problems. It had previously been observed that certain butterflies in S. America belonging to quite distinct families, resembled

As the Heliconiidae are coloured in their usual manner whilst the others depart from the

species are comparatively rare whilst the imitated abound and that the two sets live

concluded that they must be protected from the attacks of enemies by some secretion of odour and this conclusion has now been

The first two families and Plants described in the treatise, Linn. Soc. p. 17.
T. nat. Linn. Soc. L. iii. 1862, p. 495

admits the agency of selection of any kind
 after adding the above discussion, dis-
 puting the same as in the present has been
 acquired through sexual selection. In the
 Order the members of the same
 family are placed together

as a class
 different types of the mean of pro-
 duced so different possessed by the male and female

From the reasons assigned in the last chapter
 it is probable that the great number possessed
 by the males of many leiodoid corn and some
 of the beetles have been acquired as an ad-
 vantage. From the small size of insects, we are
 apt to undervalue the importance of what
 could imagine in the *Chalcosoma* (fig. 16)
 with its polished brooded coat of male and female

The coloring of insects is complex and
 obscure subject. While the male differs slightly
 from the female and in the are brightly
 colored it is probable that the sexes have
 arisen in slightly different manner and that
 the males have been transmitted by each
 sex to the same with the ability to fit
 thus accruing. While the male is brightly
 colored and differs peculiarly from the
 female as in some of the gnats and many
 butterflies, the probability that the male
 is to sexual selection whilst the female has
 retained primordial primary type of
 coloration slightly modified by the sexes
 before explained. But in some cases the female
 has appeared to become more obscure by
 the transmission of the male as in the
 direct protection and it is almost certain that
 it has some time been made brilliant, so as
 to mate the protected species in the same
 the same distribution. While the sexes resemble
 each other and both are usually colored
 the same, it is not that they have been a
 mutual difference so colored for the sake of

protection. So that in some instances when
 both are brightly colored they thus make
 the protected species, or resemble surrounding
 objects which have the same color of color
 the same name that they are unequal. In
 other cases in which the sexes resemble each
 other and are both brilliant, especially when
 the colors are arranged for display we may
 conclude that they have been gained by the
 male as a natural act and have been trans-
 ferred to the female. We are more peculiarly
 led to this conclusion when the same type

whilst others differ slightly on it at all with
 intermediate gradations connecting these ex-
 tremes together.

In the same manner as bright colors have
 often been partially transferred from the male
 to the female, so it has been with the extreme

and Orthoptera have generally been trans-
 ferred in a rudimentary manner in a
 perfect condition to the female yet not
 finally perfect to be of any use. It is also an
 interesting fact, as being necessary to select in
 the the standard of organs of certain male
 Orthoptera are not finally developed until the
 last molt and that the color of the female
 male develops first and finally developed until
 some little time after the emergence from the
 pupal state and while they are ready to breed.

Sexual selection implies that the male re-
 tract and develop by the pro-
 portion and as with the sexes when the
 difference is the male which, with some are
 exceptions, the male more ornamented and de-
 parts more from the type to which the speci-
 fic belongs—and as the male which is re-
 eagerly for the female we must suppose that
 the female has but little occasionally prefer
 the more beautiful male and that the sex has
 thus acquired the ability. That the female
 must allow the Order would have the power
 of rejecting any particular male is prob-
 ably from the many angular contractions pos-
 sessed by the males, such as great jaws, di-
 lated parts, legs, &c. for se-
 lecting the male for the same contractions. How-
 ever the female is somewhat differently acted, so that
 the color of the female seems necessary for dis-
 tinguishing from the male known by the percept-
 ible organs and effects of the various insects there

THE DESO
I then applied to Mr Wallace who has an innate genius for solving difficulties After some consideration he replied Most caterpillars require protection as may be inferred from some kinds being furnished with spines or irritating hairs and from many being coloured green like the leaves on which they feed or being curiously like the twigs of the trees on which they live Another instance of protection furnished me by Mr J Mansel Weale may be added namely that there is a caterpillar of a moth which lives on the mimosas in South Africa and fabricates for itself a case quite indistinguishable from the surrounding thorns From such considerations Mr Wallace thought it probable that conspicuously coloured caterpillars were protected by having a nauseous taste but a

and were rejected though other kinds were eagerly eaten. Thus the probability of Mr Wallace's view is confirmed namely that certain caterpillars have been made conspicuous for their own good so as to be easily recognised by their enemies, on nearly the same principle that poisons are sold in coloured bottles by druggists for the good of man. We cannot however at present thus explain the elegant diversity in the colours of many caterpillars but any species which had at some former period acquired a dull mottled or striped appearance either in imitation of surrounding objects or from the direct action of climate &c almost certainly would not become uniform in colour when its tints were rendered intense and bright for in order to make a caterpillar merely conspicuous there would be no selection in any definite direction.

been devoured. Hence as Mr Wallace remarks distastefulness alone would be insufficient to protect a caterpillar unless some outward sign indicated to its would be destroyer that its prey was a disgusting morsel. Under these circumstances it would be highly advantageous to a caterpillar to be instantaneously and certainly recognised as unpalatable by all birds and other animals. Thus the most gaudy colours would be serviceable and might have been gained by variation and the survival of the most easily recognised individuals. This hypothesis

This hypothesis appears at first sight very bold but when it was brought before the Linnean Society³³ it was supported by various statements and Mr J Jenner Weir who keeps a large number of birds in an aviary informs me that he has made many trials and finds no exception to the rule that all caterpillars of nocturnal and retiring habits with smooth skins all of

caterpillar they plainly shewed by shaking
their heads and cleansing their beaks that
they were disgusted by the taste. Three con-

Summary and Concluding Remarks on Insects—Looking back to the several Orders we see that the sexes often differ in various characters the meaning of which is not in the least understood. The sexes also often differ in their organs of sense and means of locomotion so that the males may quickly discover and reach the females. They differ still oftener in the males possessing diversified contrivances for retaining the females when found. We are however here concerned only in a secondary degree with sexual differences of these kinds. In almost all the Orders

In almost all the Orders the males of some species even of weak and delicate kinds are known to be highly pugnacious and some are furnished with special weapons for fighting with their rivals. But the law of battle does not prevail nearly so widely with insects as with the higher animals. Hence it probably arises that it is in only a few cases that the males have been rendered larger and stronger than the females. On the contrary they are usually smaller so that they may be developed within a shorter time to be ready in large numbers for the emergence of the females.

In two families of the Homoptera and in three of the Orthoptera the males alone possess sound producing organs in an efficient state. These are used incessantly during the breeding season not only for calling the females but apparently for charming or exciting them in rivalry with other males. No one who

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 25 ce Mr J an r We paper n Insects nd
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 1 also Mr Butle s p r bud p 27 Mr R l s
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 26 r n th v z 1 Insect f M r g n 1871 p 148
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CHAPTER XII

SECONDARY SEXUAL CHARACTERS OF FISHES AMPHIBIANS AND REPTILES

When now arrived at the great sub-king-
dom of the Vertebrates, and will commence
with the lowest class, the fishes. The
males of placoid fishes (harks, &c.)
and ichthyoid fishes are provided with
laspers which serve to sustain the female
the various structures possessed by many of
the lower animals. Beside the laspers, the
males of many rays have clusters of two or
sharp spines on their heads, and several rows
along the upper surface of the pectoral
fins. These are present in the males of
some species, which have the parts of the
bodies smooth. They are only temporarily
developed during the breeding season and
Dr. Guérin suspects that they are brought
into action as prehensile organs by the de-
biling inward and downward of the twos
of the body. It is a remarkable fact that the
females and that the males of some species, as
the *Rana laevis* has the backs dotted with
large black-finned spots.

The male of many fish fight for the pos-
session of the females. Thus the male stickleback
(*Gasterosteus aculeatus*) has been described as
mad with delight when the female comes
out of her hiding place and survey the nest
which he has made for her. He darts round
the nest, then to the entrance, then to the
entrance of the nest, then back again and

These battles are at times desperate and
these puny combatants fasten tightly on each
other for several seconds, tumbling and
rolling until the victor prevails and com-
pletely exhausted. With the rough-tailed
stickleback (*G. aculeatus*) the males whilst
fighting swim round and round each other
biting and endeavouring to pierce each other
with their armed spines. The same
writ adds, that both of these little fishes
every season. They also use their lateral pinnae
with such effect, that they can
during a battle absolutely rip the pro-
tecting pen so that they sink to the bottom and
die. When a fish is conquered his gillant
beating of the scales his gills are fad-
dened and he has a disgrace among his
peaceable companions, but for some time the
constant object of his coquetry persecutions.
The male salmon is as passionate as the
little stickleback and so the male trout as I
learned from Dr. Guérin. Mr. Shaw saw a
fight between two male salmon which
lasted three whole days and Mr. R. B. Smith, pre-
sident of the Fisheries, informs me that he
has frequently watched from the bridge the
male trout fighting the males, whilst the
females were spawning. The males are con-
stantly fighting and tarring each other the
spawning beds, and many so injured each other

The male willatish runs with great swift-
ness on the sandy beach, and it is reported
by Spence. The widely distributed *M. maculatus*
copies presents some what an elongated
figure. The male as Dr. Guérin informs me
has a little stiff bristly process, like those
of comb on the dorsal tail and the same in
specimens in the gill nearly and
half an inch in length the female has in the
same place a little bristly process, which may be
compared to the female toothbrush. I an-
ticipate that the male has bristles
like that possessed by the female of the last
species. The female of the tail in the fe-
male are smooth. In some of the species of the
same genus the tail can be perceived to be a
little roughened in the male and perfectly
smooth in the female and lastly in the rays,
both sexes have smooth sides.

Yarrell Hist. of Brit. Fishes vol. 1836 pp.
417-425 436 D. C. Uther form that the
pines. *R. clausa* are peculiar to the female.
The American Nat. Hist. vol. 11 p. 119

is no antecedent improbability in sexual selection having come largely into play but we have as yet no direct evidence on this head and some facts are opposed to the belief. Nevertheless when we see many males pursuing the same female we can hardly believe that the pairing is left to blind chance—that the female exerts no choice and is not influenced by the gorgeous colours or other ornaments with which the male is decorated.

If we admit that the females of the Hymenoptera and Orthoptera appreciate the musical tones of their male partners and that the various instruments have been perfected through sexual selection there is little improbability in the females of other insects appreciating beauty in form or colour and consequently in such characters having been thus gained by the males. But from the circumstance of colour being so variable and from its having been so often modified for the sake of protection it is difficult to decide in how large a proportion of cases sexual selection has played a part. This is more especially difficult in those Orders such as Orthoptera, Hymenoptera and Coleoptera in which the two sexes rarely differ much in colour for we are then left to mere analogy. With the Coleoptera however as before, we may say that

we see a mutual attachment between the sexes that we find the males of some species possessing weapons for sexual strife others furnished with wonderful horns, many with stridulating organs and others ornamented with splendid metallic tints. Hence it seems probable that all these characters have

been gained through the same means, namely sexual selection. With the

it is not that they would act thus unless the display was of use to them in their courtship.

When we treat of birds, we shall see that they present in their secondary sexual characters the closest analogy with insects. Thus, many male birds are highly pugnacious, and some are furnished with special weapons for fighting with their rivals. The

quantity ornamented with combs, horns, wattles and plumes of the most diversified kinds and are decorated with beautiful colours all evidently for the sake of display. We shall find that as with insects both sexes in certain groups are equally beautiful and are equally provided with ornaments which are usually confined to the male sex. In other groups both sexes are equally plain-coloured and unornamented. Finally, in some few anomalous cases the females are more beautiful than the males. We shall often find in the same group of birds every gradation from no difference between the sexes to an extreme difference. We shall see that female birds like female insects often possess more or less plain traces or rudiments of characters which properly belong to the males and are of use only to them. The analogy indeed in all these respects between birds and insects is curiously close. Whatever explanation applies to the one class probably applies to the other and this explanation as we shall hereafter attempt to show in further detail is sexual selection.

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t r e g t h a n d p r o t e c t t h j w s, h n o
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f t h f m a l \ s o f q t l o c c r s t h
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t h m a l e n w l l d n p o s s e s s
s h a r p t e t h d o n s e q t l y t h a d l t s f
Y a r e l l, H t o p f B r i t i s h F i s h e L i n. 1836
p. 1

The Nat Hist of the Brit. Fishes, L. 1, 1866

p. 34

Scand. nat. Hist. of the Brit. Fishes, L. 1, 1866

pp. 100

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b t h s e e s a r e p r o v i d e d w i t h b o a d f l t t e e t h
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r e q u i r e t h j r p t e e t h f i h n w i t h t h r
r i v a l s b t a s t h e y p o m a n y p t s m o d i
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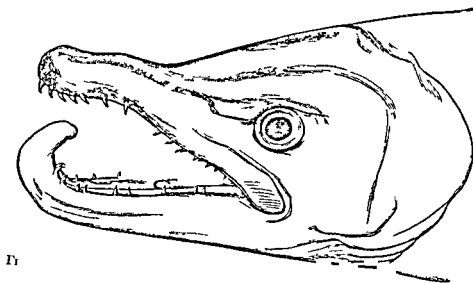
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t n g t h a n t h f m l s t h r o u g h t h f t
f s e l s e l t T h e m a l f f m t l
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m l s t h a n s t r g t h a n d s a r t t h m l s
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w a s t f t h t l l i n g f t s t o t h k a n d e s s f
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W h f h a g h t f m t l s e a t h b o d y
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p a l b t l i l l g t d i n a l b a n d t l
t r a l c a d l a r d a n l f i b g b l b
l i k T h f m a l r d d r a n t w
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q t n t u r h l s, a s d t e t p e t s f

See Y r r l l c o t o f t h j h i s H i s t r y f
B r i t i s h F i s h e L. 1836 p 416 t h l l t
f i g u r e d p p 42 432.

A s q t e d t h f m e r 1868, p. 369



Fr

Dr Gunth r]

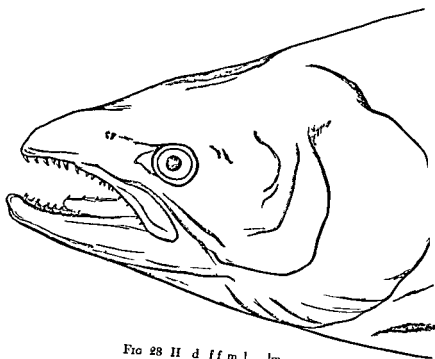
g season.
n ecuted
a Museum,

FIG 28 H d f f m l lm

as to cause the death of numbers many being seen swimming near the banks of the river in a state of exhaustion and apparently in a dying state ' Mr Buist informs me that in June

The *Fidd*, June 29 1867 To Mr Shaw stat
ments ce *Edinburgh Review* 1843 & the
pe enced bserv (S rop Dy f Salm F h g
p 60) r marks th t l k e th tag them l w uld f
he could keep all oth r m l s w y

1868 the keeper of the Stormontfield breeding ponds visited the northern Tyne and found about 300 dead salmon all of which with one exception were males and he was convinced that they had lost their lives by fighting

The most curious point about the male salmon is that during the breeding season he sides a slight change in colour the lower jaw

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th n rs. In these ld mal th j becom s
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tion, and tl teeth gro int r gular fang
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mal charg an th r w tl w d f l l nce
b t n gre tly d l ped teeth f th m l
Am can salm m be compared w th tl
t ks f many male m mmals and they in
dic t an ff th lan protect
p rpose

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h ad lt, possess harp pointed teetl and
here l aract p pe t and prim rly

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th f mal s. W shall h afte meet w th
analogous case certai brds, in whi tl
mal acq r th pl m g comm n t b th
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tl m le wh ld possess
sharp t tl and onseq tl th ad lts f
Yarrell, *History f British f he* l 1836
p. 1

The lat alud f acco er Island, l 1860
p. 54.

Secund name l d endurea ch n, 1834 pp. 100
104

b th e s are pro ded w th broad flat teeth
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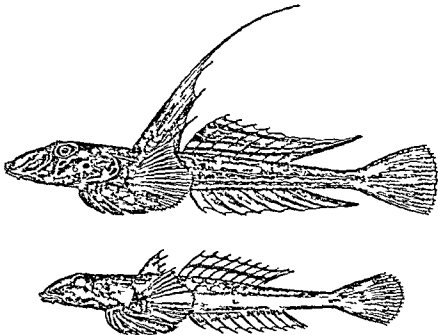


FIG 29 *Callionymus* 1. Upper figure male 1. w. figure female
N.B. The lower figure is more reduced than the upper

a dingy reddish brown with the dorsal fin brown and the other fins white. The sexes differ also in the proportional size of the head and mouth.

The eyes are large and prominent. The male is generally much more brightly spotted than the female and in several species not only the dorsal but the anal fin is much elongated in the males. Mr W. Saville Kent remarks that this singular appendage appears from my observations of the peccaries in confinement to be subservient to the same end as the rattles etc. and other abnormal adjuncts of the male in gallinaceous birds for the purpose of fascinating their mates. The young males resemble the adult females in structure and colour. Throughout the genus *Callionymus* the male is generally much more brightly spotted than the female and in several species not only the dorsal but the anal fin is much elongated in the males.

The male of the *Cottus scorpius* or sea serpent, is slenderer and smaller than the female. There is also a great difference in colour between them. It is difficult as Mr Lloyd remarks for any one who has not seen this fish during the spawning season when its hues are brightest to conceive the admixture of

the draw up this description from Yarrell's *Brit. Fishes* vol. i. 1836 pp. 261 & 266.

July 1873 p. 264.
Catalogue of Fishes in the British Museum by D. Günther 1861 pp. 138-151.
Game Birds of Sweden, &c. 1867 p. 406.

brilliant colours with which it, in other respects so ill favoured, is at that time adorned. Both sexes of the *Labrus mixtus* although very different in colour are beautiful: the male being orange with bright blue stripes, and the female bright red with some black spots on the back.

In the case of *lienesia petenensis* the dorsal fin is greatly developed and is marked with a row of large, round ocellated bright-coloured spots whilst the same fin in the female is smaller of a different shape and marked only with irregularly curved brown spots. In the male the basal margin of the anal fin is also a little produced and dark coloured. In the male of an allied form the *Apophorus H. Herri* (fig. 30) the inferior margin of the caudal fin is developed into a long filament which as I hear from D. Günther is striped with bright colours. This filament does not contain any muscles and apparently cannot be of any direct use to the fish. In the case of the *Callionymus* the males whilst young resemble the

With respect to the filament in the species I am indebted to D. Günther for information see also his paper on Fishes of the tribe Anarcho, *Trans. Zool. Soc. Lond.* 1869 p. 485.

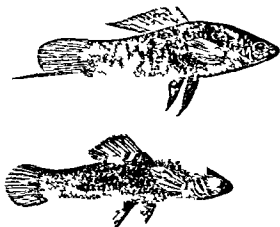


FIG. 50 *Xiphophorus killeri*. Upper figure male, lower figure female.

adult female in colour and structure. Several differences such as these may be strictly compared with those which are so frequent with gallinaceous birds.

In saltwater fish, inhabiting the fresh waters of South America, the *Plecostomus barbatus*¹³ (fig. 51) the male has the mouth and interoperculum fringed with beard-like tuft hairs, of which the female shows hardly a trace. These hairs are of the nature of scales. In another species of the same genus, soft flexible tentacles project from the front part of the head of the male, which are absent in the female. These tentacles are prolongations of the true skin, and the rest are not homologous with the stiff hairs of the former species but they can hardly be doubted that both serve the same purpose. What this purpose may be is difficult to conjecture; certainly it does not here seem probable but we can hardly suppose that tuft hairs and flexible filaments can be useful in any ordinary way to the males alone. In that strange monster the *Channa monstrosa*, the male has hook-shaped bones on the top of the head, directed forwards, which are rounded and covered with sharp spines in the female; this crown is altogether absent, but that is usual male to the male is typically unknown.¹⁴

¹³Dr Günther makes this remark, *Catalogue of Fishes*, the British Museum vol. vi., 1861, p. 131.
¹⁴See Dr Günther, this genus, *Proceedings of the Zoological Society*, 1868, p. 252.

¹⁵F. Buckland, *London and Water*, July 1868, p. 57. In this figure many other cases could be added of structures peculiar to the male, of which the uses are not known.

The structures as yet referred to are permanent in the male after he has arrived at maturity but with some blennies, and in another allied genus,¹⁶ a crest is developed on the head of the male only during the breeding season, and the body at the same time becomes more brightly coloured. There can be little doubt that this crest serves as a temporary sexual ornament, if the female does not exhibit a trace of it. In the species of the same genus both sexes possess a crest, and at least a peculiar one in the sex is thus provided. In many of the Chromidae, for instance in *Geophagus* and especially in *Cichla*, the male, as I hear from Professor Agassiz, has a conspicuous protuberance on the forehead which is wholly wanting in the females and in the young males. Professor Agassiz adds, "I have often observed these fishes at the time of spawning when the protuberance is largest and at other seasons when it is so tall wanting and the two sexes show different features in the line of the profile of the head. I could ascertain that it bore no special function, and the Indians in the Amazon know nothing about its use." These protuberances resemble in their periodical appearance the flesh carbuncles on the heads of certain birds but whether they serve as ornaments must remain to present doubtful.

I hear from Professor Agassiz and Dr Günther that the males of those fishes, which

¹⁶Dr Günther, *Catalogue of Fishes*, vol. vi., pp. 221 and 240.

¹⁷See also *J. Mar. Biol.*, by Prof. and Mrs. Agassiz, 1868, p. 220.



FIG 31. *Platichthys flesus*.
Upper figure, male; lower figure, female.

differ permanently in colour from the females often become more brilliant during the breeding season. This is likewise the case with a multitude of fishes the sexes of which are identical in colour at all other seasons of the year. The tench, roach, and perch may be given as instances. The male salmon at this season is marked on the cheeks with orange-coloured stripes which give it the appearance of a Labrus, and the body partakes of a golden orange tinge. The females are dark in colour

and are commonly called black fish. An analogous and even greater change takes place with the *Salmo letos* or bull trout: the males of the char (*Salmo umbla*) are like these at this season rather brighter in colour than the females.²¹ The colours of the pike (*Esox lucius*) of the United States, especially of the

²¹ *Illustrations of British Fishes*, vol. 1, 1836, pp. 10, 1, 35.

²² *The Empress in the Alps and the Alps*, by Alfred Russel Wallace, 1841, p. 440.

FISHES, AMPHIBIANS AND REPTILES

CHAP. XII

male become, during the breeding-season, exceedingly intense brilliant and iridescent.* Another striking instance of this is afforded by the male stickleback (*Gasterosteus aculeatus*) which is described by M. Warington, as being the most beautiful description. The back and sides of the female are simply brown and the belly white. Those of the male on the other hand, are of the most splendid green, having a metallic lustre like the green of the most humming birds. The throat and bell are of bright crimson, the back of an ash green, and the whole fish appears as though it were somewhat translucent and glowed with an internal incandescence. After the breeding season these colours all change the throat and belly become of pale red, the back more green, and the glowing tints subside.

With respect to the courtship of fishes, other cases have been observed since the first edition of this book appeared besides the stickleback. Mr. W. S. K. says that the male of the *Labrus muriei*, which, as we have seen, differs in colour from the female, makes deep hollow in the sand of the tank, and the females in the most persuasive manner induce the female of the same species to share the hollow with him backwards and forwards between the sand and the completed nest,

leaden-black the fish retire from the shoal, and each hollows its own nest. Each male now mounts the vigilant guard his respect

—
tended with pawn, and the sea-horse builds a ball of mud and pebbles in the sand, and then he prepares the hollow and then he deposits the egg with which the female is laden, which he protects and guards with the greatest care.

A more striking case of courtship as well as of display by the males of *Chirocentrus* has been given by M. Carbonni, who carefully observed these fishes and confined to them. The males are most beautifully coloured more

so than the females. During the breeding season they contend for the possession of the females and, in the act of courtship, expand the fins, which are spotted and named with brightly coloured rays, in the same manner according to M. Carbonni as the peacock. They then lie bound about the females with the male and appear as follows: *d leur vive couleurs chercher à attirer l'attention de la femelle qui ne paraît pas indifférente. Ils nagent lentement et ne moule lentement les males et les femelles complaisamment. After the male has won his bride he makes a little disc of froth by blowing air and mucus out of his mouth. He then collects the fertilised ova, dropped by the female in his mouth and thus*

habitation designated by the difficult much diminished when we know that there are fishes which thus collect and carry the eggs if displayed by any unusual position in the tank, the fish touching them in their turn this might have been acquired.

To return to the immediate subject. The case stands thus for male fishes, as far as I can learn, none willingly pawn except in the presence of the male and the males do not refuse the egg in the presence of the female. The males fight for the possession of the females. In many species, the males whilst young resemble the females in colour but when adult become much more brilliant and retain their colours throughout life. In other species the males become brighter than the females and the reverse more highly named and during the season of life. The males seduce the courtship of the females, and in some cases as we have seen, take pains in displaying to the betwixt them. Cannot be believed that they would thus act in purpose during their courtship. And thus would be the case unless the females resist some choice and select the males which please them the most. If the female resists choice all the above facts on the manner that the males become once intelligible by the aid of sexual selection.

*The American Naturalist, 1868, p. 100.
Annals and Magazine of Natural History, Oct., 1852.

Nature May 13, p. 25.

Bulletin de la Société d'Acclimatation, Paris, July 1869, and 3^e s., 150.

We have next to mention

law of the equal transmission of characters to both sexes be extended to those groups in which the males and females are brilliant in the same or nearly the same degree and manner. In such a genus as *Labrus*, which includes some of the most splendid fishes in the world—for instance the peacock *Labrus (L. pavo)* described

accept this belief for we have seen that the sexes in at least one species of the genus differ greatly in colour. With some fishes as with many of

without the aid of selection of any kind. The gold fish (*Cyprinus auratus*) judging from the analogy of the golden variety of the common carp is perhaps a case in point as it may owe its splendid colours to a single abrupt variation due to the conditions to which this fish has been subjected under confinement. It is however more probable that

through has been the period. Under natural conditions it does not seem probable that beings so highly organised as fishes and which live under such complex relations should become brilliantly coloured without suffering some evil or receiving some benefit from so great a change and consequently without the intervention of natural selection.

What then are we to conclude in regard to the males and females of fishes? I believe that the most frequent result is

and other brightly-coloured organisms abound are brightly coloured in order to escape detection by their enemies but according to my recollection they were thus rendered highly conspicuous. In the fresh waters of the tropics there are no brilliantly-coloured corals or other organisms for the fishes to resemble yet many species in the Amazons are beautifully coloured and many of the carnivorous Cyprinidae in India are ornamented with bright longitudinal lines of various tints. Mr Al Clelland in describing these fishes, goes so far as to suppose that the peculiar brilliancy of their colours serves as a better mark for kingfishers terns and other birds which are destined to keep the number of these fishes in check but at the present day few naturalists will admit that any animal has been made conspicuous as an aid to its own destruction. It is possible that certain fishes may have been rendered conspicuous in order to warn birds and beasts of prey that they were unpalatable as explained when treating of caterpillars but it is not I believe known that any fish at least any fresh water fish

or which both sexes are brilliantly coloured is that their colours were acquired by the males as a sexual ornament and were transferred equally or nearly so to the other sex.

We have now to consider whether when the male differs in a marked manner from the female in colour or in other ornaments, he alone has been modified the variations being inherited by his male offspring alone or whether the female has been specially modified and rendered inconspicuous for the sake of protection such modifications being inherited only by the females. It is impossible to doubt that colour has been gained by many fishes as a protection no one can examine the pecked upper surface of a flounder and overlook its resemblance to the sandy bed of the sea on which it lives. Certain fishes, moreover can through the action of the nervous system change their colours in adaptation to surrounding objects, and that within a short time. One of the most striking instances ever recorded of an animal being protected by its colour (as far as it can be judged of in preserved specimens) as well as by its form is

as to its color and as source of profit. *Westminster Review* Jul 1867 p 7

Ind. Cyprinidae by M. M. Clelland, *Anatole* 1839 p 230
 G. I. ch. L. I. 1871 p. 134

that given by D. Güthrich²² for pape-fish, which, with its reddish streamer-like filaments, hardly distinguishable from the seaweed to which it clings with its prehensile tail. But this question now under consideration is whether the females also have been modified for this object. We can see that sex will not be modified through natural selection for the sake of protection more than the other supposing both to vary unless sex is exposed for longer period to danger has less power of escaping from danger than the other and it does not appear that with fish this series differs in these respects. As far as the other is any difference, the males, from being generally smaller and from wandering more about, are supposed to be more dangerous than the females and yet, whether the sexes differ, the males are almost always the more conspicuously coloured. The other are fertilised immediately after

the young to the nest, when they stray too far. He courageously drives away all intruders during the time the males of his own species. It would indeed be no small relief to the male if the female after depositing her eggs, were immediately rendered by some enemy free to feed incessantly to drive her from the nest.²³

The males of certain fish inhabiting South America and Central America to two distinct Orders, have the extraordinary habit of hatching within the mouth of the female. The egg laid by the females.²⁴ I am informed by Professor Agassiz that the males of the Amazonian species which follow this habit, "not only are generally brighter than the females, but the difference is greater during the spawning season than at any other time. The species of *Geophagus* act in the same manner and in this genus, a conspicuous protuberance becomes developed on the forehead of the males during the breeding season. With the various species of chromids, as Professor Agassiz has wisely informs me, sexual differences in colour may be observed when the young then growing within the aquatic plant or deposit them in holes, leading them to come out with further care build shallow nests

part is, so that the male and female, as far as disposition is concerned, are equally disposed to danger and both are equally important for the production of the offspring. Consequently the more less brightly coloured individuals of the sex would be equally liable to be destroyed, preserved and both could have an equal chance in the colour of their offspring.

Certain fishes belong to several families, make nests, and some of them take care of their young which hatched. Both sexes of the brightly coloured *Crenilabrus massa* and *Melops* work together in building their nests with seaweed, shells, &c.²⁵ But the males of certain fishes do all the work, and afterwards take exclusive charge of the young. This is the case with the dull-colored gobies,²⁶ in which the sexes are not known to differ in colour and then with the sticklebacks (*Gasterosteus*) in which the male becomes brilliantly coloured during the spawning season. The male of the small tailed tickleback (*G. leucurus*) performs the duties of care with exemplary care and diligence during the gestation and continual employed in guarding the back

with all the species of chromids, the male which sits on the eggs is not known. It is, however, manifest that the fact of the eggs being protected is protected by the parents, has had little influence on the difference in colour between the sexes. It is further manifest, in all the cases, whether the males take exclusive charge of the young and the destruction of the brood of coloured males would be far more influential in the character of the race, than the destruction of the brightly coloured females of the

²² For Zoology see *Ibid.* p. 37, pls. 21 and 22. *Varied, British* &c. ed. p. 11. *Arctura* 21 the others two of M. (see see *Author Record of Zoology Literature* 1863, p. 194. ²³ see *Fish Animal*, ed. u. 129 p. 242.

²⁴ see M. W. n. t. most interesting description of the habits of the *Gasterosteus* as found in *J. p. p. p. of Nat. History* &c. &c. p. 180. Prof. W. n. t. *For Birds* &c. of *Nat. Hist.* Sept. 1 1867. Also Prof. Turner *J. n. t. of Anatomy and Physiology* &c. 1 1866 p. 3. D. Günther has likewise described other cases.

the males are more conspicuously coloured than the females

In most of the Lophobranchii (pipe fish Hippocampi &c) the males have either marsupial sacks or hemiphenical depressions on the abdomen in which the ova laid by the female are hatched. The males also shew great attachment to their young.³ The sexes do not commonly differ much in colour but Dr Günther believes that the male is more

useful for the female is much more vividly coloured and spotted than the male and she alone has a marsupial sack and hatches the egg so that the female of Solenostoma differs from all the other Lophobranchii in this latter respect.

Reason of character in the female should be an accidental coincidence. As the males of several fishes which take exclusive charge of the eggs and young are more brightly coloured than the females and as here the female Solenostoma takes the same charge and is brighter than the male it might be argued that the conspicuous colours of that sex which is the more important of the two for the welfare of the offspring must be in some manner protective. But from the large number of fishes in which the males are either permanently or periodically brighter than the females but not for the benefit of the female.

When we treat of birds we shall meet with analogous cases where there has been a complete inversion of the usual attributes of the two sexes and we shall then give what appears to be the probable explanation namely that the males have elected the more attractive females instead of the latter having elected in accordance with the usual rule throughout the animal kingdom the more attractive males.

On the whole we may conclude that in most fishes in which the sexes differ in colour or in other ornamental character the males originally varied with their variation transmitted to the same sex and accumulated through sexual selection by attracting or exciting

Yrell *History of Birds* 1836
no 99 999

ing the females. In many cases however such characters have been transferred either partially or completely to the females. In other cases again both sexes have been coloured alike for the sake of protection but in no instance does it appear that the female attracts

L are known to make various noises, some of which are described as being musical. Dr Dufosse who has especially attended to this subject says that the sounds are voluntarily produced in several ways by different fishes, by the friction of the pharyngeal bones—by the vibration of certain muscles attached to the swim bladder which serves as a sounding board—and by the vibration of the intrinsic muscles of the swim bladder. By this latter means the Trigl produces pure and long drawn sounds which range over nearly an octave. But the most interesting case for us is that of two species of Ophidium in which the males alone are provided with a sound producing apparatus consisting of small movable bones with proper muscles in connection with the swim bladder. The drumming of the Umbrinas in the Fion

time and that it is possible by imitating it to take them without bait. From this statement and more especially from the case of Ophidium it is almost certain that in this lowest class of the Vertebrata as with so many insects and spiders sound producing instruments have at least in some cases, been developed through sexual selection as a means for bringing the sexes together.

AMPHIBIANS

URODELA.—I will begin with the tailed amphibians. The eyes of salamanders or newts often differ much both in colour and structure. In some species preocular colour is developed on the fore legs of the males during the breeding season and at this season in the male

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Triton punctatus the hind feet are provided with swimming web, which is almost completely absorbed during the winter so that their feet resemble those of the female. This structure no doubt aids the male in his eager search and pursuit of the female. Whilst courting, her body rapidly vibrates the end of his tail. With our common newts (*Triton punctatus* and *crystallus*) a deep, much indented crest is

therefore concluded that the males have acquired their strongly marked colours and ornamental appendages through sexual selection, these being transmitted either to the male offspring alone, or to both sexes.

SEX OF BATRACHIA.—With many frogs and toads the colours and all serve as a protection, such as the bright green tints of tree frogs and the obscure mottled shades of many ter-

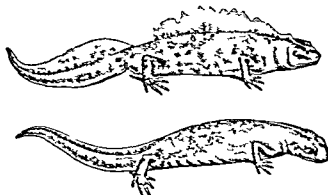


FIG. 32. *Triton cristatus* (half natural size, from Bell's *History of British Reptiles*).

Upper figure male during the breeding season. Lower figure female.

developed along the back and tail of the male during the breeding season, which disappears during the winter. Mr. St. George Milner informs me that it is not furnished with scales, and therefore cannot be used for locomotion. As during the season of courtship it becomes covered with bright colours, there can hardly be doubt that it is a masculine ornament. In many species the body presents strongly contrasted, though lurid tints, and these become more vivid during the breeding season. The male for instance of our common little newt (*Triton punctatus*) is brownish-grey above, passing into yellow beneath, which in the spring becomes rich bright orange, marked everywhere with round dark spots. The end of the crest also is then tipped with bright red or white. The female is usually of a lilacish-brown colour with scattered red brown dots, and the lower surface is of a quiet plain. The young are obscurely tinted. They are frequently seen in the act of depositing eggs, and are not infrequently tended by either parent. We may

restrain speculations. The most conspicuously coloured toad which I ever saw, the *Ptychocheilus* "reians" had the whole upper surface of the body as black as ink, with the soles of the feet and parts of the abdomen spotted with the brightest crimson. It crawled about the bare sandy open grassy plains of La Plata under a scorching sun, and could not fail to catch the

every passing creature. These colours are probably beneficial in making this animal known to all birds of prey as a nauseous mouthful.

In Nicaragua there is a little frog, dressed in bright liver of red and blue, which does not conceal itself like most of the species, but hops about during the day and night. Mr. Bell says that as soon as he saw its happy sense of security he felt sure that it was untable. After several trials he succeeded in capturing it, and heck to snatch up a young one but it was instantly rejected and the frog went about jolting its head as if trying to throw off some unpleasant taste.

With respect to sexual differences of colour

Zoology of the Boy of the Beagle 1843, Bell, vol. 1, p. 49.

The Naturalist New York, 1844, p. 321.

P. 2. *History of British Reptiles*, 2nd ed., 1849, pp. 146-147.

Bell's *History of British Reptiles*, 2nd ed., 1843, pp. 146, 151.

Dr Günther does not know of any striking instance either with frogs or toads yet he can often distinguish the male from the female by the tints of the former being a little more intense. Nor does he know of any striking difference in external structure between the sexes excepting the prominences which become developed during the breeding season on the front legs of the male by which he is enabled to hold the female.⁴⁷ It is surprising that these animals have not acquired more strongly marked sexual characters for though cold blooded their passions are strong. Dr Günther informs me that he has several times found an unfortunate female toad.⁴⁸

our man in Gies en fighting all day long during the breeding season and with so much violence that one had its body ripped open.

Frogs and toads offer one interesting sexual difference namely in the musical powers possessed by the males but to speak of music, when applied to the discordant and overwhelming sounds emitted by male bullfrogs and some other species seems according to our taste a singularly inappropriate expression. Nevertheless certain frogs sing in a decidedly pleasing manner. Near Rio Janeiro I used often to sit in the evening to listen to a number of little *Hyla* perched on blades of grass close to the water which sent forth sweet chirping notes in harmony. The various sounds are emitted chiefly by the males during the breeding season as in the case of the croaking of our common frog.⁴⁹ In accordance with this fact the vocal organs of the males are more highly-developed than those of the females. In some genera the males alone are provided with sacs which open into the larynx.⁵⁰ For instance in the edible frog (*Rana esculenta*) the sac is peculiar to the males and become when filled with air in the act of croaking.

whilst that of the female is only a slight groaning noise.⁵¹ In the several

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REPTILES

CHELONIA —Tortoises

in some the plastron or lower surface of the shell of the male is slightly concave in relation to the back of the female. The male of the mud turtle of the United States (*Chrysem*)

or the Galapagos Islands (*Testudo nigra*) the males are said to grow to a larger size than the females during the pairing season and at no other time the male utters a hoarse bellowing noise which can be heard at the distance of more than a hundred yard the female on the other hand never uses her voice.⁵²

With the *Testudo elegans* of India it is said that the combats of the males may be heard at some distance from the noise they produce in butting against each other.⁵³

CROCODILIA —The sexes apparently do not differ in colour nor do I know that the males fight together though this is probable for some kinds make a prodigious display before the females. Bartram⁵⁴ describes the male alligator as striving to win the female by splashing and roaring in the midst of a lagoon swollen to an extent ready to

his feats of war. During the season of love a musky odour is emitted by the submaxillary glands of the crocodile and pervades their habit.

I know of no other difference in external structure. In regard to colour I can always distinguish the male from the female by his more strongly pronounced tints thus the black zigzag band on the back of the male

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English viper is more distinctly defined than in the female. The diff. race is much plainer in the rattle snakes of America, the male of which, as the keeper in the Zoological Gardens assured me, can at once be distinguished from the female by having more rounded yellow about its base body. In S. Africa the *Bucephalus capensis* presents an analogous difference for the female is more so fully anterior with yellow the sides as the male. The male of the Indian *Dipsos coronatus*, on the other hand, is blackish-brown, with the bell part black, but the female is reddish or yellowish with the belly with uniform yellowish or mottled with black. In the *Trachys duper* of the same country the male is bright green, and the female bronze-coloured. No doubt the

same points

colours of many kinds, for instance of the common English snake and pe serve to conceal them and this is still more doubtful with the many foreign species which are coloured with extreme elegance. The colours of certain species are very different in the adult and young states.¹⁴

During the breeding season the anal scent glands of snakes are in active function¹⁵ and so it is with the same glands in lizards, and as I have seen with the submaxillary glands of crocodiles. As the males of most animals search for the females, these odoriferous glands probably serve to excite or charm the female rather than to guard her to the spot where the male may be found. Male snakes, though appearing so ungracious, are amorous if man has been observed crowding round the same male and round her and body. They are not known to fight to the death from rivalry. Their intellectual powers are higher than might have been anticipated. In the Zoological Gardens they soon learn not to touch the iron bar with which their cages are cleaned, and D. Heen of Philadelphia informs me that some snakes which he kept learned all four or five times to avoid noose with which they were at first and caught. An excellent observer in Ceylon,

Mr E. Lavard, saw a cobra thrust its head through a narrow hole and swallow a toad. "With this encumbrance he could not withdraw himself finding this, he reluctantly disgorged the precious morsel, which began to move off this was too much for snake philosophy to bear and the toad was again seized, and again was the snake after violent efforts to escape compelled to part with its prey. This time, however, a lesson had been learnt, and the toad was seized by one leg, withdrawn, and then swallowed in triumph."

The keeper in the Zoological Gardens is positive that certain snakes, for instance *Crotalus* and *Python*, distinguish him from all other persons. Cobras kept together in the same cage apparently feel some attachment towards each other.

It does not, however follow because snakes have some reasoning power strong passions and mutual affection, that they should likewise be endowed with sufficient taste to admire brilliant colours in their partners, so as to lead to the adornment of the species through sexual selection. Nevertheless, it is difficult to account for any other manner for the extrem

well remember

how much surprise I felt at the beauty of the first coral-snake which I saw gliding across a path in Brazil. Snakes coloured in this peculiar manner as Mr Wallace states in the authority of Dr Gunther¹⁶ are found nowhere but in the world except in S. America, and here no less than four genera occur. One of these Elaps, is enormous a second and widely distinct genus is doubtfully venomous, and the two others are quite harmless. The species belonging to these distinct genera inhabit the same districts, and are so like each other that no one but a naturalist would distinguish the harmless from the poisonous kinds. Hence, as Mr Wallace believes, the innocuous kinds have probably acquired their colours as protection, in the principle of imitation for they would naturally be the least dangerous by their enemies. The cause however of the bright colours of the venomous Elaps remains to be explained, and this may perhaps be sexual selection.

¹⁴ See Lawrence Smith, Zoology of S. Africa. Reptiles, 1. p. 2.

¹⁵ Dr A. Gunther, Reptiles of British India, Serp. Cor. 1864, pp. 304, 305.

¹⁶ D. Wallace, J. Anal. of Indus. Society of England, vol. xxxii, 18 2, pp. 263, 211.

¹⁷ Owen, Anatomy of Vertebrates, vol. 2, 1866, p. 613.

¹⁸ H. Hamblin in Ceylon, in Trans. and M. J. G. of Nat. Hist. Soc. Ceylon, vol. ix, 1852, p. 333.

¹⁹ Dr Gunther, Reptiles of British India 1864, p. 340.

Dr Günther does not know of any striking instance either with frogs or toads yet he can often distinguish the male from the female by the tints of the former being a little more intense. Nor does he know of any striking difference in external structure between the sexes excepting the prominences which become developed during the breeding season on the front legs of the male by which he is enabled to hold the female.⁴⁷ It is surprising that these animals have not acquired more strongly marked sexual characters for though cold blooded their passions are strong. Dr Günther informs me that he has several times found an unfortunate female toad dead and smothered from having been so closely embraced by three or four males. Frogs have been observed by Professor Hoffman in Giessen fighting all day long during the breeding season and with so much violence that one had its body ripped open.

Frogs and toads offer one interesting sexual difference namely in the musical powers possessed by the males but to speak of music when applied to the discordant and over whelming sounds emitted by male bullfrogs and some other species seems according to our taste a singularly inappropriate expression. Nevertheless certain frogs sing in a decidedly pleasing manner. Near Rio Janeiro I used often to sit in the evening to listen to a number of little *Hyla* perched on blades of grass close to the water which sent forth sweet chirping notes in harmony. The various sounds are emitted chiefly by the males during the breeding season as in the case of the croaking of our common frog.⁴⁸ In accordance with this fact the vocal organs of the males are more highly-developed than those of the females. In some genera the males alone are provided with sacs which open into the larynx. For instance in the edible frog (*Rana esculenta*) the

genera of the family the vocal organs differ considerably in structure and their development in all cases may be attributed to sexual selection.

REPTILES

CHOLONIA—Tortoises and turtles do not offer well marked sexual differences. In some species the tail of the male is longer than that of the female. In some the plastron or lower surface of the shell of the male is slightly concave in relation to the back of the female. The male of the mud turtle of the United States (*Chrysemys picta*) has claws on its front feet twice as long as those of the female and these are used when the sexes unite.⁴⁹ With the huge tortoise of the Galapagos Islands (*Testudo nigra*) the males are said to grow to a larger size than the females during the pairing season and at no other time the male utters a hoarse bellowing noise which can be heard at the distance of more than a hundred yards the female on the other hand never uses her voice.⁵⁰

With the *Testudo elegans* of India it is said that the combats of the males may be heard at some distance from the noise they produce in butting against each other.⁵¹

CROCODILIA—The sexes apparently do not differ in colour nor do I know that the males fight together though this is probable for

to an extent ready to burst with its head and tail lifted up he springs or twirls round on the surface of the water like an Indian chief rehearsing his feats of war. During the season of love a musky odour is emitted by the submaxillary glands of the crocodile and pervades their haunts.⁵²

OPHIDIA—Dr Günther informs me that the males are always smaller than the females and generally have longer and slenderer tails but he knows of no other difference in external structure. In regard to colour he can always distinguish the male from the female by his more strongly pronounced tints thus the black zigzag band on the back of the male

of the head near the corners of the mouth. The croak of the male is thus rendered exceedingly powerful whilst that of the female is only a slight groaning noise.⁵³ In the several

animal is excited. They occur in both sexes, but are best developed when the male is in the mating period. The middle part of the body is sometimes as long as the head. Most of the species have a white reticulated pattern on the body, but this is much more

In the genus *Chamaeleon* we come to the same difference between the sexes. The upper part of the skull of the male *C. b. furcata* (fig. 3) is much broader than that of the female. The solid bony projection

during the spring, and if one is caught, in the fall from the tree to the ground, and allow itself to be captured with impunity. — I presume from the pair.



FIG. 34. *Crotaphytus stoddardi*. Upper figure, male; lower figure, female.

Chamaeleon (fig. 6) from the same locality as the male above. The male has on its snout and forehead three curved horns, of which the female has not a trace. The horns consist of an increase of bone covered with a smooth skin. The body of the female is not gummy like the body of the male, but is covered with the same scales. The three horns of the female are so much more prominent than those of the male that they serve the same purpose as the horns of the male. The first conjecture which will occur to any one is that they are used by the males to fight with each other, and as the animals are very quarrelsome, this is not only correct, but also true. W. M. T. W. Wood

reared for a time and afterwards continued the battle.

With many I read the sex differently in color, the tints and the parts of the males being brighter and more distinctly defined than in the female. This, in fact, the case with the above *Crotaphytus* and with the *Chamaeleon* of S. Africa. In a C. dyl. of the latter country the male

color is a mass of purplish tints, the animal is cited in the literature. The female has half an inch in length, but is of quite a different size in the female. The female has a prominent appendage, as Dr. Günther has remarked, in which it can be compared with the comb of gallinaceous birds, and apparently serves as an ornament.

All the foregoing statements are quoted from the work of Crotaphytus, and Dr. Günther's facts in regard to *Crotaphytus* of *Chamaeleon*, are from Dr. Günther himself, from his magazine, the *Reptiles of British India*, Vol. 1, 1864, pp. 122, 130, 133.

M. B. Abney, Proc. Zool. Soc. 1870, p. 240

in the male the dorsal part of the body and back of the tail the male is bright and spotted with black, in the female the same parts are paler. I agree with the poet, "We have seen that the male of *Stenopoma* possess a throat pouch and thus splendidly tinted with blue, black, and red. In the *Poecilopus* the male is of blue, the male is marked with

"D. B. H. L., *M. nabeberichs* A. P. C. A. d. J. 184 p. 78.

B. L., *History of British Reptiles* 2d ed., 1849 p. 40

Snakes produce other sounds besides hissing. The deadly *Echis carinata* has on its sides some oblique rows of scales of a peculiar structure with serrated edges and when this snake is excited these scales are rubbed against each other which produces a curious prolonged almost hissing sound.⁶³ With respect to the rattling of the rattle snake we have at last some definite information for Professor Aughey states⁶⁴ that on two occasions being himself unseen he watched from a little distance a rattle snake coiled up with head erect, which continued to rattle at short intervals for half an hour and at last he saw another snake approach and when they met they paired. Hence he is satisfied that one of the uses of the rattle is to bring the sexes together. Unfortunately he did not ascertain whether it was the male or the female which remained stationary and called for the other. But it by no means follows from the above fact that the rattle may not be of use to snakes in other ways as a warning to animals which would otherwise attack them. Nor can I quite disbelieve the several accounts which have appeared of their thus paralyzing their prey with fear. Some other snakes also make a distinct noise by rapidly vibrating their tails against the surrounding stalks of plants and I have myself heard this in the case of a *Trigonocephalus* in S. America.

LACERTILIA—The males of some probably of many kinds of lizards fight together from rivalry. Thus the arboreal *Inolis cristatellus* of S. America is extremely pugnacious. During the spring and early part of the summer two adult males rarely meet without a contest. On first seeing one another they nod their heads up and down three or four times and at the same time expanding the frill or pouch beneath

at each other furiously rolling over and over and holding firmly with their teeth. The conflict generally ends in one of the combatants losing his tail which is often devoured by the

the general rule with lizards of all kinds. The

⁶³Dr. A. d. r. son. *Poe. Zoolog. Soc.* 1871 p. 106.

⁶⁴The *Americ. Nat. Hist.* 183 p. 85.

⁶⁵V. N. L. Aust. Nat. Hist. 183 p. 85.

considerable time see *Land Nat. Hist.* July 1867.

male alone of the *Cyrtodactylus reticulatus* of the Andaman Islands possesses one anal pore and these pores judging from analogy probably serve to emit an odour.⁶⁶

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above

a crest

erected at pleasure but of this crest the female does not exhibit a trace. In the Indian *Cophylus ceylanicus* the female has a dorsal crest though much less developed than in the male and so it is as Dr. Günther informs me with the females of many iguanas, chameleons and other lizards. In some species however the crest is equally developed in both sexes as in the *Iguana tuberculata*. In the genus *Sitana*, the males alone are furnished with a large throat pouch (fig. 33) which can be folded up like a



FIG. 33. *Sitana* with the gular pouch expanded (from Günther's *Reptiles of India*).

fan and is coloured blue, black and red but these splendid colours are exhibited only during the pairing season. The female does not possess even a rudiment of this appendage. In the *Inolis cristatellus* according to Mr. Austen the throat pouch which is bright red marbled with yellow is present in the female though in a rudimental condition. Again in certain other lizards both sexes are equally well provided with throat pouches. Here we see with species belonging to the same group as in so many previous cases the same character either confined to the males or more largely developed in them than in the female or again equally developed in both sexes. The little lizards of the genus *Draco* which glide through the air on their rib-supported parachute and which in the beauty of their colours baffled description are furnished with shaggy appendages to the throat like the wattles of gallinaceous birds. These become erected when the

⁶⁶Stol. *Ann. J. Nat. Soc. Anat. Soc.* 183 p. 106.

an mal is ted Th y o c c r l t l s e e s
b t e b e s t d l p e d w l t l l e r v s
t m t y t w l h a g t h e n l l l i p e d
g i s o m i m s t w e a s l g a s t l l a d
Most f u l p e c l k s e l e a l e r e s t
u n n a g a l o g t l c k a n d t h i s m u c h i n r e
d l p e d t h e f l l g o n m a l s t h n i t l
f m a l r y o g m a l s.

A Ch s e p e c i s s a d t o l v p a i
d u r i g t h p r i g d i f o e s c a u g h t t l
t l f a l l s f r o m t h t r e t o t h e g d a n l
a l l t s e l f t o b p t e d w t h i m p u n i t y — I
p e s m f r o m d p a i



Fig 34 *Ceratophor stoddartii* Upper figure,
mal l figure f mal

s c o d p e e s f t l s a m g t r m l
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s t o d d t f i g 34) t l w l l p p e n d a g c o n
t e d t o l r m w h l l l y f l l
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m m l s t e d l t l a d l t m l f t l l t
t e p e t h f r n f i f f l l g t l
b t t s f q u i t e m i n t e i n t h f m l a n d
t l s g t l s e p p e d a g a s D G u
t h h a s m k e d t o m m a y b c o m p e d
t h t h c o m b f g l l a c e o b d l
f p t l y s e r v a s r n m t

In t h e g n C h a m e l e o n w e c o n e t t l e
a c m e f t h l t e n t h e s e f l e
u p p r i g
(f g 3)

d e e d i n t o t w g t s u w
c o v e d w i t h s c a l l k t h e r i f f l e l a d
a n l t h i s w l f l l o d i f t f t r u t e
t l f m a l e h i b i t s l y r u l i t A g a i n
C h a m l e o u r i (f g 36) f r o m t h e w t o a t
f A f r i a t l m a l e l r l t a l
f l a d t l e e u s l r n f w l h t l e
f m l e f a s o t a t r a c e T h e s e l n c o n s i t
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s m o o t h a l e t l f r m g p r t f t l g r l
i t g u m i s f t l l y s o t l t l s a d i
t a l s t r u c t r e w t l s e f l l g t
o t t e r l t l l r n d r u m a t A l l u g l
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f r o m t h t w g r e a t i g t i f t l k l l
i n C b f r e u w e i l r d l d t t l t t l y
s e r v t h e s a m e g r i p p o s e t h e c o m y
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w l d w i l l o c c u r t o r y t h a t t l y a r e
u s e d b y t l l s f r f l i g t i g t l r a n l
a s t h s e a l s e s j u a r h o i t l s
p r o l i f y c o r r e c t w M F W W o o d
a l s o f m s m t l t l e c e w a t c h e d t w o
i d i d l f C p m l u s f l i t g l t l y
t l b l f t r e t l y l l g t l r l a d s
a l o t d t e d t o b t a c t t h e r t l y t l n
t e d f a t m e a n d a f t e r w a r d c o t u n d
t l b t t l

W t h m y l r d t h e s e e s d i f f r l g t l y
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I t h I l C l i s a n g r l b r i s t h e r e t l l
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p) t l l d f t l b o d y d b a s e
f t l t l t h e m l b g l t g e p o t
t e d w t l b l a c k t l f m l t l p r t r e
p l g y l g w t l t p o t W h
t l t t l j j f S t a n p o s s a
t l t p l d t l p l d d l y t i t e d
t h b l b l a c k, d e d I n t h f t o t t s
t e u s f C l l t l m l e a l e i m r k e d w t l

D B h h l M n a t o b e r c h t h P A k d
J 1874 p 78
B l l l t o r y f B r i t i s h R e p t i l 2 d e d 1849
p 40

of a peculiar structure with serrated edges and when this snake is excited these scales are rubbed against each other which produces a curious prolonged almost hissing sound. With respect to the rattling of the rattle snake we have at last some definite information for Professor Aughey states that on two occasions being himself unseen he was

at last he saw another snake approach and when they met they paired. Hence he is satisfied that one of the uses of the rattle is to bring the sexes together. Unfortunately he did not ascertain whether it was the male or the female which remained stationary and called for the other. But it by no means follows from the above fact that the rattle may not be of use to snakes in other ways as a warning to animals which would otherwise attack them. Nor can I quite disbelieve the several accounts which have appeared of their thus paralysing their prey with fear. Some other snakes also make a distinct noise by rapidly vibrating their tails against the surrounding stalks of plants and I have myself heard this in the case of a *Trigonocephalus* in S. America.

LACERTILIA—The males of some probably of many kinds of lizards fight together from rivalry. Thus the arboreal *Anolis cristatellus* of S. America is extremely pugnacious. During the spring and early part of the summer two adult males rarely meet without a contest. On first seeing one another they

their eyes glisten with rage and after waving their tails from side to side for a few seconds as if to gather energy they dart at each other furiously, rolling over and over and holding firmly with their teeth. The conflict generally ends in one of the combatants losing his tail which is often devoured by the victor. The male of this species is considerably larger than the female and this as far as Dr. Günther has been able to ascertain is the general rule with lizards of all kinds. The

male alone of the *Cyrtodactylus rubidus* of the Andaman Islands possesses pre-anal pores and these pores judging from analogy probably serve to emit an odour.

The sexes often differ greatly in various external characters. The male of the above mentioned *Anolis* is furnished with a crest which runs along the back and tail and can be erected at pleasure but of this crest the female does not exhibit a trace. In the Indian *Copholis ceylanica* the female has a dorsal crest though much less developed than in the male and so it is as Dr. Günther informs me, with the females of many iguanas, chameleons and other lizards. In some species however the crest is equally developed in both sexes as in the *Iguana tuberculata*. In the



FIG. 33. *Stenodactylus* Male with the gular pouch expanded (from Günther's *Reptiles of India*).

fan and is coloured blue black and red but these splendid colours are exhibited only during the breeding season. The female does not

possess the throat pouch which is bright red marbled with yellow and is present in the female though in a rudimentary condition. Again in certain other lizards both sexes are equally well provided with throat pouches. Here we see with species belonging to the same group as in so many previous cases the same character either confined to the males or more largely developed in them than in the female or again equally developed in both sexes. The little lizards of the genus *Draco* which glide through the air on their rib supported parachute and which in the beauty of their colours baffle description are furnished with skinny appendages to the throat like the wattles of gallinaceous birds. These become erected when the

*Dr. Anderson *Proc. Zool. Soc.* 1871 p. 190.

†*The American Naturalist* 1873 p. 82.

‡Mr. V. L. Austen *Report on the reptiles of*

the British time see *Landed in the* July 1867 p. 9.

*Dr. L. A. Journal of the Anatomic Society of Berlin, L. xxxi. 1870 p. 166.

CHAPTER VIII

SECONDARY SEXUAL CHARACTERS OF BIRDS

structure t. an any ti lass of animals. I shall, th ref re tre t the bject t co d r ab le gth Mal b rd som tim s, th gh rari possess perial we pons f f i l i t i n g th ach th Th y charm the f mal by ucal or nstrum talmus f i l m o t a r i e d k u d Th y are rnam nted by ll sort f combs, w ttles, prot berances, h rns, as -dis- tended sacks, top-kn ts, naked shafts, pl mes and i gtl ed f th rs gract f ly pringing from all parts f i l body Th beak and naked kin abo tth head dth f th rs, are f i n g geo ly col ured The mal som times pay th co t by dancing, by fantastic antics performed th th ground r in th as I nstance at l ast, th mal mits a musk od ur wh h may suppose serves t harm at th f mal f that cel lent bers. M Ramsay say fth A s- tralian musk-duck (*Bu ra lobat*) t t t le m l h bth mal m t during th m m mo this is confi d to th t sex, and in som individuals retai ed thro gl tth v ar f ha e n th breed g season, sh t fermal h h had any m l f musk. So po ful thus od d ring th pairing season th t t can be d tected i g bef re th b rd can be see O th w l le, b rd ppear to beth in t asth t f ll animals, cept- ing f co rse man and t y ha nearly th sar tast f th be t i l as ha This sh w h y y m t f th g g f b rds, and by m bott dised and sa g deck g th h ad wth borrowed pl mes, and sang g ms which are hardly m re brilliant coloured than ti naked kin and ttle f ce tau b rds I man, h w f l l i t e d, th sense f bea ty s mans festl far more onj l feeling, and asso- ciated th ari t llect al ideas. B f r t r e t g fth se alchiar t w th h h reh m repart larly co ce ed, l m y just all i t certain d i f f e n c e b t e th v a x e s l u c h p p a r e t l y d p e d

1111 1 (series) 1867 p 414.
 "Moult, H adbook f the B ds f Aust alia, 1865
 ol u. p. 353.

d i f f e n c e in th r h a b i t s f i l d f such cases, though commo n the l w are rare i the high r classes. Two l m m g b r d s b e l g g i r i t i h a n u s, w h i l n h a b i t l

as l. f mal of th sam pecies, and th y d i f r sl ghtly the f rm of th beak. In ano th r g f l m m g b r d (Gryp) th beak of th male is serr ted along th margin and hooked at th extrem ty thus i f f r i g much from that f t l f male In ti Ncom r y f N w Zealand th re is, as w ha seen a till wd d i f f e n c e th f r m f th beak in rela t n to the mann r f feeding f th tw se s Som thm of th sam kind l as bee obser ed w th the g l d f h (*Carduel s l y*) f r l m ass red by M J J n n W that ti bird catch rs can dist guish the mal s by their l ghtly l g beaks. Ti flocks of m les are ften f und feeding on th seed of the teazle (*D psacu*) whel th y can ach w th th ir l ted beaks, whil t the f mal m re com m ly feed n the seed f th beto y or Scro- ph laria. W th sl ght d i f f e n c e f this kind as a f undati we can see h w th beaks f th two se es m g t b e m a d to d i f f e r g r tly thro gh natural selecti In some f the abo cases, h w t is possibl th t the be ka f the mal may ha e been first mod fied lat t th v o t is w th th males and that this aft rward led to l ghtly changed h a b i t s f l i f

Law f B the — Almo t all mal birds are trem ly p gnac s, us g th ir be ka wings and l g f fighting tog t l r We see this ry pring w th o rob ns and par row Ti small t f all b rds, nan ly ti h mning b d is f th m t i r r e l s o m M G o s s e d s c r i b e b t l w l h j a u r seized h l d f ach th beaks, and w h l e d round and ro nd till th y alu t f l l to ti gro nd and M M tes d Oca, in p e k i n g o an t l g f h m m g b r d say th t w mal arly meet w th a f i r e a e r n a l n c o u n t e w l k p t c a g th i r f i g h t i n g h a s

Q ted by Mr G uld, *Introd ction to th T o- child* 1861 pag 29



FIG 35 *Chamaeleo b f reus* Upper figure male lower figure female.

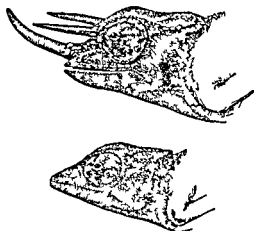


FIG 36 *Chamaeleo m l o u e* Upper figure male lower figure female.

spot of blue green and coppery red. In many cases the males retain the same colours throughout the year but in others they become much brighter during the breeding season.

18
Beagle
of Dr
Anders
Calotes, etc.
p 143

son I

Calotes

red head etc rest of body

Both sexes of many species are beautifully coloured exactly alike and there is no reason to suppose that such colours are protective. No doubt with the bright green kinds which live in the midst of vegetation this colour serves to conceal them and in New Latagonia I saw a lizard (*Iroctotretus multimaculatus*) which when frightened flattened its body closed its eyes and then from its mottled tints was hardly distinguishable from the surrounding sand. But the bright colours with which so many lizards are ornamented as well as their various curious appendages, were probably acquired by the males as an attraction and then transmitted either to their male offspring or to both sexes. Sexual selection indeed seems to have played almost as important a part with reptiles as with birds and the less conspicuous colours of the females in comparison with the males cannot be accounted for as Mr. Wallace believes to be the case with birds, by the greater exposure of the females to danger during incubation.

1861-62 The Zoological Society 1860
p 778 with red figure

SECONDARY SEXUAL CHARACTERS OF BIRDS

snapping with their beaks and giving heavy blows with their wings. Male snipe fight by lunging and pushing each other.

bens are filled by half dozen in air

(Boxer) and the male *C. n. m. phus cru* at
(all to ur pps) ar by m asurem tactu
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Wth many th burd th f mal are larg r
than th male and asf r m ly rema bed th
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males h m t f th w k in feeding th r
g. all t ffice I som f w cases, as
w shall h readt see th f mal ppare tly
ha acquired th r gre te and t n th
f th sak f co q n g th f mal and
obtaining possess f th males

Th mal f many g ll naceo birds, s-
pecally f th poly g m kind f ru hed
wth picial weapons f fighting w th th ir
n als, nam ly sp rs, which can b used wth
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stru k t gam b n accompanied by h
chickens, when th cock ru hed to th esc e,
and dro his pur right thro gh th y and
skull f th ggresso Th spur was w th diffi-
cult dr wn from th hull d as th kite,
th gh d ad, retai ed his g ap th tw birds
w re firmal locked tog th but th cock wh n
dise tangled was ry little in j red Th in-
ucible courag f th g m -cock n torn in
g tl man wh l g g w t used th brutal

² R. Schomburgk, in *Journal of Royal Geographical Society* 1. 1843, p. 31.

*Ornithological Biography 1.1, p. 191. F. pelicans and nuptia, see 1.1, pp. 138, 477

¹ Gould, *Handbook of Birds of Australia*, vol. 1, p. 393. L. n. n. 363.

M. Hewitt, in the *Poultry Book*, by T. Getmeier
1866 p. 187

see
b
th

P
w o l d c o n t i n u e f i g h t g T h i s w a s n e c e s s a r y
t h e p o t , a n d t h e b r d f u g h t w t h u n d a n t e d
c o u r a g e u t i l h r e c e i v e d h i s d a t h t r o k e I n
C h i n a h e s e l f a l l e d w l d s p e e s , t h G a l l u s

part dg (*Ortygornis glaris*) the ma
wh chisf m bed wtl tro g and sharp p rs,
is so quarrelsom that the scars of f rme
fights disfigure the breast of almo t ry b rd
y u kill 12

[illegible]

Layard, A note on the Mosaic of the Nativity of Christ
 in the Vatican Museums. *Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society*
 London 1854 p 68

Jerd n. B. *de f India*, l. m., p. 574

mostly ended in the splitting of the tongue of one of the two which then surely dies from being unable to feed. With waders the males of the common water hen (*Gallinula chloropus*)

when pairing fight violently for the females they stand nearly upright in the water and strike with their feet. Two were seen to be thus engaged for half an hour until one got hold of the head of the other which would have been killed had not the observer interfered the female all the time looking on as a quiet spectator. Mr Blyth informs me that

day at a particular spot where the females propose to lay their eggs. The fowlers discover these spots by the turf being trampled somewhat bare. Here they fight very much like game-cocks seizing each other with their beaks and striking with their wings. The great ruff of feathers round the neck is then erected and according to Col Montagu sweeps the ground as a shield to defend the more tender parts and this is the only instance known to me in the case of birds of any structure serving as a shield. The ruff of feathers however from its



FIG 37 The Ruff of Male's pugnacious (from Brehm's Tierleben)

the males of an allied bird (*Gallus cristatus*) are a third larger than the females and are so pugnacious during the breeding season that they are kept by the natives of eastern Bengal for the sake of fighting. Various other birds are kept in India for the same purpose for instance the bulbuls (*Pycnonotus lamorhous*) which fight with great

are fighting
and
creably

larger than the females congregate day after

varied and rich colour probably serves in chief part as an ornament. Like most pugnacious birds they seem always ready to fight and when closely confined often kill each other but Montagu observed that their pugnacity becomes greater during the spring when the long feathers on their necks are fully developed and at this period the least movement by any one bird provokes a general battle. Of the pugnacity of well footed

the mallard duck (*Anas moschata*) and where these fights have occurred the river is
The gallinule story of Brehm's Tierleben vol. iv
1852, pp 17 181

Gould bird p 52.
W Thropso Nat Hist of the Island B ds
vol 1 1850 p 327
Jerdon B d f i d 1863 vol p 96

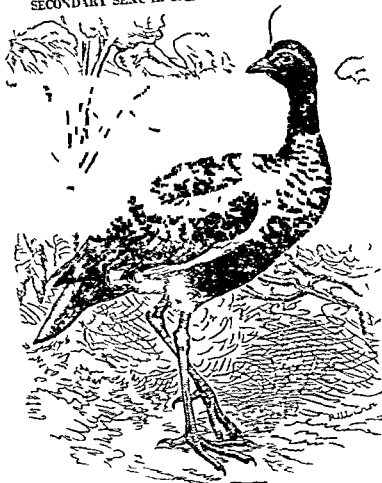


Fig. 38 *Ptarmigan des cornes* (from Brehm), showing the double wing-spurs and the filament on the head.

As to Audubon, several males of the Virginian goat-suck (*C. permixtus virginicus*) court, in highly entertaining manner, the female and no sooner has she made her choice than the approved goes chase to all intruders and drives them before his domestic fowls. Generally the males try to drive or kill their rivals before they pair. It does not, however, appear that the females in any way prefer the victorious males. I have indeed been assured by Dr. Wilson that the female capercaillie sometimes steals away with a young male who has not dared to enter the arena with the older cocks, in the same manner as occasionally happens with the does of the red deer in Scotland. When two males contend in

presence of a single female, the victor no doubt, commonly gains his desire but some of these battles are caused by wandering males trying to distract the peace of an already

the male female such males are generally decorated with various ornaments, which often become more brilliant during the breeding season, and which are sedulously displayed before the females. The males also endeavour to charm or excite their mates by low notes, songs, and antics and the courtship is, in many

Brehm, *Thierleben*, etc., B. 1867 p. 990.
Audubon, *Ornithological Biography*, vol. II, p. 122.

morning several *bal* places which remain the same during successive years ¹⁴

The peacock with his long train appears more like a dandy than a warrior but he sometimes engages in fierce contests the Rev W Darwin Fox informs me that at some little distance from Chester two peacocks became so excited whilst fighting that they flew over the whole city still engaged until they alighted on the top of St John's tower

The spur in those gallinaceous birds which are thus provided is generally single but Polyplectron (see fig 51 p 472) has two or more on each leg and one of the blood pheasants (*Ithaginis cruentus*) has been seen with five spurs The spurs are generally confined to the male, being represented by mere knobs or rudiments in the female but the females of the Java peacock (*Iris muticus*) and as I am informed by Mr Blyth of the small fire backed pheasant (*Euplocamus erythrophthalmus*) possess spurs In Galloperdix it is usual for the males to have two spurs and for the females to have only one on each leg ^{15 17}

Like most other secondary sexual characters the spurs are highly variable both in number and development in the same species

Various birds have spurs on their wings But the Egyptian goose (*Chen*)

opened in other species In the spur winged goose *Plectropterus gambensis* the males have much larger spurs than the females and they use them as I am informed by Mr Bartlett in fighting together so that, in this case the wing spurs serve as sexual weapons but according to Livingstone they are chiefly used in the defence of the young The *Ialameda* (fig 38) is armed with a pair of spurs on each wing and these are such formidable weapons that a single blow has been known to drive a dog howling away But it does not appear that the spurs in this case or in that of some of the spur winged rails are larger in the male than in the female ¹⁶ In cer

tain plovers however the wing spurs must be considered as a sexual character Thus in the male of our common peewit (*Vanellus cristatus*) the tubercle on the shoulder of the wing becomes more prominent during the breeding season and the males fight together In some species of *Lobivanellus* a similar tubercle becomes developed during the breeding season into a short horny spur In the Australian *L. lobatus* both sexes have " are al s.

in the same manner as our peewits by turning suddenly in the air and striking sideways at each other sometimes with fatal results Thus also they drive away other enemies ¹⁷

The season of love is that of battle but the males of some birds as of ¹⁸

the presence of the female is the *telerrima belli causa* The Bengali baboos make the pretty little males of the *amalat* (*Etrelida amandara*) fight together by placing three small cages in a row with a female in the middle after a little time the two males are turned loose and immediately a desperate battle ensues ¹⁹ When many males congregate at the same appointed spot and fight together as in the case of grouse and various other birds, they are generally attended by the females ²⁰ which afterwards pair with ²¹

Ill tructes Th erl ben, B iv 40 See also the bird Azar *Vog g d na l Interq mend t m*

1809 pp 179 253
See n ur pe wt. Mr R C rr La d nd
Hate A g 8 1868 p 40 In g rlt Lob llus
J d B d f Ind v l } 647 d
Guld H idbook f B d f tuz i v l
p 220 I r tl H i pterus ce Mr All n in the
Ibs v l 1863 p 156

A dub Op thologi al Bog pty ol i p
492 vol pp 4-13

M Blyth Land nd IV ter 1867 p 212
²⁰ R ch rdson i Tet ao mbell F na bor i ur
B d 1831 p 347 i 11 A r

Brehm *Illu t Thuc l ben, 1867 B v s. 351*
S n of the f rego ng tat m nts are t k n from L
Lloyd Game B rds f Sweden, d 186 p 9
J don, B ds of Ind n Ithaginis, v l i i
p 523 on C loperdix p 511
¹ For the Egyptian goose ce M gill ray B rds
B rds ol v p 639 F r Ilectropt us, I r g
stone a T rls p 251 f I alamed B r h n

cept n t th co i rul pe tly th b
y l b J d n n t l urn f g t h a, as is
k n t b the case w th the gny b wca di
n a, nd th th r pect V A n

It is certain that there is an intense degree of rivalry between the males in their singing. Bird-fanciers match their birds to see which will sing longest and I was told by Mr Yarrell that some birds will sometimes sing till half

that the song of the male cannot serve as a charm, because the males of certain species, for instance of the robin, sing during the summer.²¹ But in this more common than for animals to take pleasure in practicing what

in the following at other times for some real good. However often do we see birds which fly and glide, and sailing through the air obviously for pleasure. The cat plays with the captured mouse and the cormorant with the captured fish. The waterfowl (Ilocus) when confined in a cage amuses itself by pulling the blades of grass between the wires of its cage. Birds which habitually fight during the breeding season are generally ready to fight at all times and the males of the capercaillie sometimes hold their *balen* in the usual place of assembly during the summer.²² Hence it is of all surprising that male birds should continue singing for their own amusement after the season of copulation is

As shown in the previous chapter singing is to a certain extent an art, and is much improved by practice. Birds can be taught various tunes, and in the unmelodious sparrow has learnt to sing like human beings. They acquire this so good that their foster parents, and sometimes that of their neighbours.²³ All the common songsters belong to the Order of Insectores, and their vocal organs are much more complex than those of most other birds. It is singular fact that some of the Insectores, such as ravens, crows, and magpies, possess the proper apparatus,²⁴ though they never sing, and do not naturally modulate their voices to any great extent. Hunt asserts²⁵ that with the true songsters the muscles of the larynx are stronger in the males than in the females but with this slight exception there is no difference in the vocal organs of the two sexes, although the males of most species sing so much better and more continuously than the females.

It is remarkable that only male birds properly sing. The Australian genus *Menura*, however, must be excepted from this. *Menura* at

also during the season of copulation. The song of the male is sometimes quiet and pendulous and of love is clear for a female bird canary bird has been described as singing whilst swimming in a mirror and then dashing it to its own image till wise attacked with fury of male when put into the same cage. The jealousy excited by the act of singing is constantly taken advantage of by bird-catchers. A male in good song is hidden and protected, but a stupid bird surrounded by females is exposed to view in this manner. As Mr Weir informs me a man has in the course of single days caught fifty and in one instance, seven male chaffinches. The power and inclination to sing differ so greatly with birds that although the price of an ordinary male chaffinch is only sixpence Mr Weir saw one bird for which the bird-catcher asked three pounds the test of a really good singer being that it will continue to sing whilst the cage is swung round the warden's head.

That male birds should sing from emulation as well as for charming the female is not at all incompatible and might have been expected that these two habits would have concurred. Like those of display and pugnacity, however, how accurate that the song of the male cannot serve to charm the female, because the females of some few species, such as of the canary, robin, lark, and bullfinch, especially when in state of widowhood, as Bechstein remarks, pour forth fair melody strains. In some of these cases the habit of singing may be in part attributed to the females having been highly fed and confined. Thus disturbs all the functions connected with the reproduction of the species. Many instances have already been given of the partial transference of secondary masculine characters to the female so that it is not at all surprising that the females of some species should possess the power of song. It has also been argued,

Vogel und der Stubenwald, 1840, s. 232.

Mr Bodd, Zoologist, 1843-44, p. 649.

²² D. Barnard, Philosophical Transactions, 1833, p. 262. Bechstein, Stubenwald, 1840, s. 4.

instances a prolonged "tr"

t answering chirp During the nocturnal migrations of geese and other water fowl, sonorous clangs from the van may be heard in the darkness overhead answered by clang in the rear. Certain cries serve as danger signals, which as the sportsman knows to be ~

are probable that the females are excited either before or after the conflict by certain males and thus unconsciously prefer them. In the case of *Tetrao umbellus* a good observer goes so far as to believe that the battles of the male are all a sham performed to show themselves to the greatest advantage before the admiring females who assemble around for I have never been able to find a maimed hero and seldom more than a broken feather. I shall have to recur to this subject, but I may here add that with the *Tetrao cupido* of the United States about a score of males assemble at a particular spot and strutting about make the whole air resound with their extraordinary noises. At the first answer from a female the males begin to fight furiously and the weaker give way but then according to Audubon both the victors and vanquished crouch for the female so that the females must either then exert a choice or the battle must be renewed. So again with one of the field starlings of the United States (*Sturnella ludoviciana*) the males engage in fierce conflicts but at the sight of a female they all fly after her as if mad.

Vocal and instrumental music—With birds the voice serves to express various emotions such as distress fear anger triumph or mere happiness. It is apparently sometimes used to excite terror as in the case of the hissing noise made by some nestling birds. Audubon²⁴ relates that a night heron (*Nycticorax Linn*) which he kept tame used to hide itself when a cat approached and then suddenly start up uttering one of the most frightful cries apparently enjoying the cat's alarm and flight. The common domestic cock clucks to the hen and the hen to her chickens when a dainty morsel is found. The hen when she has laid an egg repeats the same note very often and concludes with the sixth above which she holds for a longer time²⁵ and thus she expresses her joy. Some social birds apparently call to each other for aid and as they fly from tree to tree the flock is kept together by chirp

14
p/y n Tet oo
l p 219
p 601

²⁴Th H n Daines B rri gt Philosophical Transactions 1773 p. 252.

c triumph over a defeated rival. The true song however of most birds and even strange cries are chiefly uttered during the breeding season and serve as a charm or merely as a call note to the other sex.

Naturalists are much divided with respect to the object of the singing of birds. Few more careful observers ever lived than Montagu and he maintained that the males of song birds and of many others do not in general search for the female but on the contrary their business in the spring is to perch on some conspicuous spot breathing out their full and armorous notes, which by instinct, the female knows and repairs to the spot to choose her mate. Mr Jenner Weir informs me that this is certainly the case with the nightingale. Bechstein who kept bird during his whole life asserts, that the female canary always chooses the best singer and that in a state of nature the female finch selects that male out of a hundred whose notes please her most. There can be no doubt that birds closely attend to each other's song. Mr Weir has told me of the case of a bullfinch which had been taught to pipe a German waltz and who was so good a performer that he cost ten guineas when this bird was first introduced to the public.

the greatest interest to the new performer. Many naturalists believe that the singing of birds is almost exclusively the effect of rivalry and emulation and not for the sake of charming their mates. This is the opinion of Daines Barrington and White of Selborne who both especially attended to this subject. Barrington however admits that superiority in song gives to birds an amazing ascendancy over others as is well known to bird-catchers.

²⁵O udlog cat D t nary 1833 p 45
²⁶N t p xch it d St bern p l 1840 n. 4 Mr
H r r o W l k rit t m l m r
f rmed it t th be t k g l g rally p t a
m l first h n th y re bred n th same room.
Philos ph at n 1 3, p. 263. Whit
A t al Hist y of S llo w 1825 l. 4, p. 246.

SECONDARY SEXUAL CHARACTERS OF BIRDS

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throat pouch of the E. roean male bustard (*Ostrina*) and of at least four other species, does not, as was formerly supposed serve to hold water but is connected with the utterance during the breeding-season of a peculiar sound resembling oaks. A crow-like bird unknown south America (*Cephalopus* or *scia*, fig. 40) is called the umbrella-bird, from its immense top knot, formed of bare white

development of the trachea and vocal organs. It is dilated when the bird utters its singularly deep, loud and long sustained flute note. The head-crest and neck-appendage are rudimentary in the female.

The vocal organs of various web-footed and wading birds are extraordinarily complex, and differ in a certain extent in the two sexes. In some cases the trachea is convoluted, like a



FIG. 40 The Umbrella-bird or *Cephalopus ornatus*, male (from Brehm).

quills surmounted by dark blue plumes, which I can let into great domes less than six inches diameter covering the whole head. This bird has on its neck a long, thin, cylindrical fleshy appendage which is thickly clothed with scale-like blue feathers. It probably serves in part as an ornament, but likewise as a resonating apparatus. Mr Bates

French horn, and is deeply imbedded in the sternum. In the wild wren (*C. gnusferus*) it is more deeply embedded in the adult male than in the adult female or young male. In the male M. anse the enlarged parts of the trachea is furnished with an additional pair of muscles. In none of the ducks, however, namely *A. aspenetata*, the body enlargements are only a little more developed in the male than in the female. But this in among these differences

"The following papers have been lately written on the subject. Prof. A. Newton, in the *Ibis*, 1862, p. 107. Dr. Cullen, *ibid.*, 1863, p. 143. Mr. Flower in *Proc. Zool. Soc.*, 1863, p. 47 and D. Murie in *Proc. Zool. Soc.*, 1868, p. 411. This latter paper contains a fine figure in grey of the male Australian bustard in full display of the sack distended. It is an singular fact that the sack is not developed in all the males of the same species.

Bates, *The Naturalist on the Amazon*, 1863, vol. II, p. 254. Wallace, in *Proceedings of the Zoological Society*, 1860, p. 206. A new species, with still larger neck appendage (*C. pendulirostris*), has lately been discovered, see *Ibis*, vol. I, p. 45.

"Bishop, in *Todd's Cyclopaedia of Anatomy and Physiology*, vol. I, p. 1499.

Prof. A. Newton, *Proc. Zool. Soc.*, 1871, p. 651.

SECONDARY SEXUAL CHARACTERS OF BIRDS

CHAP. XIII

throat pouch of the European male bustard (*Otus tard*) and the last of the species, does not, as was formerly supposed, serve to hold the testis connected with the uterine duct during the breeding season. A peculiar sound resembling oak "A crow like bird in habiting So the America (*Cypselopterus ornatus* fig. 40): called the umbrella bird from its immense top knot, formed of bar white

dimple of the trachea and vocal organs. It is dilated when the bird utters its singularly deep loud and long sustained flute note. The head-crest and neck appendage are rudimentary in the female.

The vocal organs of various web-footed and wading birds are extraordinarily complex and differ to a certain extent in the two sexes. In some cases the trachea is constricted like a



FIG. 40 The Umbrella bird *Cypselopterus ornatus* male (from Brehm)

quills mounted by dark plumage which can be inflated into great balloons than the ordinary diameter of the wing. The male has its neck and throat, cylindrical fleshy appendage which is thickly clothed with scales like the fish. It probably serves as an ornament, but likewise as resounding apparatus. Mr Bates found that it is connected with an unusual

fenestrated and deeply imbedded in the muscles. In the female, however, it is only a small red loop in the middle of the throat of the male. But the main difference

*The following papers have been lately written on the subject: Prof. A. Newton, *Ibid.* 1862, p. 107; D. C. Lillie, *Ibid.*, 1865, p. 145; M. Florent, *Proc. Zool. Soc.* 1866, p. 747; and D. Murie, in *Proc. Zool. Soc.* 1868, p. 471. In this latter paper an excellent figure is given of the male Australian bustard, and its play with the sack. It is a singular fact that the sack is not developed in all the males of the same species.

in the trachea of the two sexes of the Anatidae is not understood for the male is not always the more vociferous thus with the common duck the male hisses whilst the female utters a loud quack.⁴⁷ In both sexes of one of the cranes (*Grus virgo*) the trachea penetrates the sternum but presents certain sexual modifications. In the male of the black stork there is also a well marked sexual difference in the length and curvature of it.

and notes uttered by male birds during the breeding season serve as a charm or merely as a call to the female. The soft cooing of the turtle dove and of many pigeons it may be presumed pleases the female. When the female utters

vers
oise
with erected feathers rustling wings and distended wattles he puffs and struts before her. The *spel* of the black cock certainly serves as a call to the female for it has been known to bring four or five females from a distance to a male under confinement but as the black cock continues his *spel* for hours during successive days and in the case of the capercaillie with an agony of passion we are led to suppose that the females which are present are thus charmed.⁴⁸ The voice of the common rook is known to alter during the breeding season and is therefore in some way sexual.⁴⁹ But what shall we say about the harsh screams of for instance some kinds of macaws have these birds as bad taste for musical sounds as they apparently have for colour judging by the inharmonious contrast of their bright yellow and blue plumage. It is indeed possible that without any advantage being thus gained the loud voices of many male birds may be the result of the inherited

effects of the continued use of their vocal organs when excited by the strong passions of love jealousy and rage but to this point we shall return when we treat of quadrupeds.

We have as yet spoken only of the voice but the males of various birds practise, during their courtship what may be called instrumental music. Iacocks and birds of paradise rattle their quills together. Turkey-cocks scrape their wings against the ground and some kinds of grouse thus produce a buzzing sound. Another North American grouse, the *Tetrao umbellu* when with his tail erect, his ruffs displayed he shows off his finery to the females who he lures in the neighbourhood drums by rapidly striking his wings together above his back according to Mr R. Hammond and not, as Audubon thought, by striking them against his sides. The sound thus produced is compared by some to distant thunder and by others to the quick roll of a drum. The female never drums but flies directly to the place where the male is thus engaged. The male of the Haly pheasant, in the Himalayas often makes a singular drumming noise with his wings not unlike the sound produced by shaking a stiff piece of cloth. On the west coast of Africa the little black weavers (*Flouceus*) congregate in a small party on the bushes round a small open space and sing and glide through the air with quivering wings which make a rapid whirring sound like a child's rattle. One bird after another thus performs for hours together but only during the courting season. At this season and at no other time the males of certain nightjars (*Caprimulgus*) make a strange booming noise with their wings. The various species of woodpeckers strike a sonorous branch with their beaks with so rapid a vibratory movement that the head appears to be in two places at once. The sound thus produced is audible at a considerable distance but cannot be described and I feel sure that its source would never be conjectured by any one hearing it for the first time. As this jarring sound is made chiefly during the breeding season it has been considered as a love song but it is perhaps more strictly a love-call. The female when driven from her nest has been observed thus to call her mate who answered in the same manner and soon appeared. Lastly the male hoopoe (*Upupa epops*) combines vocal and instrumental music for during the breeding season this bird as Mr Swinhoe observed first draws in air and then taps the end of its

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n r Eng transl. 1845 p 111 Where peck to t
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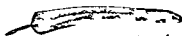
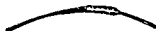
SECONDARY SEXUAL CHARACTERS OF BIRDS

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beak perpendicular down against the trunk of tree will be the forced down the barrel produce the correct sound. If the beak not the trunk against some object, the sound is different. Thus the same effect will be produced by the scapulars become more swollen and the probably acts as a resonator not only the hoopoe but with pigeons and other birds.

In the foregoing cases so noted are made by the aid of the already present and the various excesses but in the following are certain features which are peculiarly modified for the purpose of producing sounds. The drumming of the kingfisher (as expressed by different birds) is made by the common snipe (*Sceloporus galapagos*) in the surprised cry which has a hard t. The bird dig the sand feet seasonally to help the sand feet light, and after gazing at the ratine descent the arthral curved with spread tail and quaggers, and the penguin. The so-called nighthawk g. the piddler. No was able to explain the same until M. M. observed that each side of the tail the

the stalk and wing the middle could reproduce the drumming made by the kingbird. These are furnished with the feathers, but they are generally larger in the male than in the female and even a deeper tint. In some species, as in *Sphenota* (fig. 42) the feathers, and in *S*

FIG. 42. Outline of the tail feather of *Scolopax f. nata*.FIG. 43. Outline of the tail feather of *Scolopax f. juvenis*.

juv. (fig. 43) is less than the length of the tail regionally modified. Different in the tail feather of the

In the male of the *Chamaepetes unicolor* (a large gall acco's bird of America) the first primary wing feathers are directed towards the tip and in the male are directed towards the tip of the tail. The male of the *Chamaepetes unicolor* (a large gall acco's bird of America) the first primary wing feathers are directed towards the tip of the tail. The male of the *Chamaepetes unicolor* (a large gall acco's bird of America) the first primary wing feathers are directed towards the tip of the tail.

(*Symphoricarpos*) has its primary feathers greatly acuminate and the male of an allied species known to make a humming use of the white of the female. In widely different groups of birds, namely in many birds, the male also effect a kind of thrusting shafts of the primary wing feathers broadly dilated or the wings abruptly curved to and the extremity. The male of the *Symphoricarpos platyc* when adult, has the tip of the primary wing feathers (fig. 44) the second. Whilst flying from the tip to the lower half makes a sharp alarm

FIG. 41. Outline of the tail feather of *Scolopax f. galapagos* (from Proceed. Zool. Soc. 1858)

the feathers, by fast growth and

See fig. 1 Ind p. 227 A. d. b. Am. r.

See M. M. t. r. e. g. p. p. P. o. Zool. Soc. 1858, p. 199. The habits of the peacock gall y. History of the B. d. l. p. 371. The American peacock. Bl. k. t. l. b. l.

the use of the tail feathers during the rapid flight.

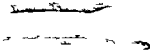


Fig 44 Primary wing feather of a humming bird the *Selasphorus platycercus* (from a sketch by Mr. Salvin) Upper figure that of male lower figure corresponding feather of female

whistling noise¹⁶ but it did not appear to Mr. Salvin that the noise was intentionally male

Lastly in several species of a sub-genus of *Pipra* or manakin the males as described by Mr. Salter have their secondary wing feathers modified in a still more remarkable manner. In the brilliantly-coloured *P. delciosa* the first three secondaries are thick stemmed and curved towards the body in the fourth and fifth (fig. 45 a) the change is greater and in the sixth and seventh (b c) the shaft is thickened to an extraordinary degree forming a solid horny lump. The barbs also are greatly changed in shape in comparison with the corresponding feathers (d e f) in the female. Even the bones of the wing which support these singular feathers in the male are said by Mr. Fraser to be much thickened. These little birds make an extraordinary noise the first sharp note being not unlike the crack of a whip¹⁷

The diversity of the sounds both vocal and instrumental made by the males of many birds during the breeding season and the diversity of the means for producing such sounds are highly remarkable. We thus gain a high idea of their importance for sexual purposes and are reminded of the conclusion arrived at as to insects. It is not difficult to imagine the steps by which the notes of a bird primarily used as a mere call or for some other purpose might have been improved into a melodious love song. In the case of the modified feathers, by no means a few of the females were led to select the best performers, the males which possessed the strongest or thickest or most attenuated feathers situated on any part of the body would be the most

successful and thus by slow degrees the feathers might be modified to almost any extent. The females of course would not notice each slight successive alteration in shape but only the sounds thus produced. It is a curious fact that in the same class of animals, sounds so different as the drumming of the snipe's tail, the tapping of the woodpecker's beak, the harsh trumpet-like cry of certain water fowl, the cooing of the turtle-dove and the song of

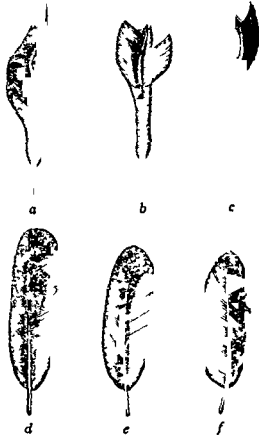


Fig 45 Secondary wing feathers of *Pipra delciosa*

a d d fifth secondary wing feather of male
b d e female upper surface
c d f third secondary feather of female
e f seventh secondary feather of female

the nightingale should all be pleasing to the females of the several species. But we must not judge of the tastes of distinct species by a uniform standard nor must we judge by the standard of man's taste. Even with man we should remember what discordant notes, the beating of tom-toms and the shrill notes of

reds, please the ears of savages. Sir S. Baker remarks, that as the stomach of the Arab prefers the raw meat and reeking liver taken hot from the animal, so does his ear prefer his equally coarse and discordant music to all other.

Love Antics and Dances—The curious love gestures of some birds have already been incidentally noticed, so that little need here be added. In Northern America large numbers of

we have seen with the black African warbler instead of on the ground. During the spring our little white-throat (*Sylvia cinerea*) often flies in the air above some

courting the female as has been seen in the Wolf. An allied Indian bustard (*Otus bengalensis*)



FIG. 46 Bower-bird, *Chlamydera maculata*, with bower (from Brehm).

grouse the *Tetrao phasianus* meet every morning during the breeding season on a selected level spot, and here they run round and round in circle of about fifteen to twenty feet in diameter, so that the ground is worn quite bare like a fair ring. In these partridge-dances, as they are called by the hunters, the birds assume the strangest attitudes, and run round, some to the left and some to the right. Audubon describes the males of the rook (*Ardea herodias*) as walking about on their long legs with great dignity before the females, bidding defiance to their rivals. With one of the disgusting carion-vultures (*Cathartes* sp.) the same naturalist states that the gesticulations and parade of the males at the beginning of the breeding season are extremely ludicrous. Certain birds perform their love-antics with wings, as

the turtle doves "rises perpendicularly into the air with a hurried flapping of his wings, raising his crest and puffing out the feathers of his neck and breast, and then drops to the ground. He repeats this manoeuvre several times, the same time humming in a peculiar tone. Such males as happen to be near obey this saltatory summons, and when they approach he trails his wings and spreads his tail like a key-cock."

But the most curious case is afforded by three allied genera of Australian birds, the

*For *Tetrao phasianus*, see Richardson, *F. and B. of America*, p. 361 and for further particulars Capt. Blackiston, *Ibid.*, 1863, p. 123. For the *Cathartes* of Ardea, Audubon, *Ornithological Biography* vol. ii., p. 51 and vol. iii., p. 62. O the white-throat, M. Cullivray *History of British Birds*, vol. ii., p. 354. O the Indian bustard, Jerdon, *Birds of India*, vol. iii., p. 613.

famous bower birds—no doubt the co-descendants of some ancient species which first acquired the strange instinct of constructing bowers for performing their love antics. The bowers (fig 46) which

shall hereafter
s shells bones
and for the sole

of their nests are formed in trees. Both sexes assist in the erection of the bowers but the male is the principal workman. So strong is this instinct that it is practised under confinement and Mr Strange has described⁶ the habits of some satin bower birds which he kept in an aviary in New South Wales. At times the male will chase the female all over the aviary then go to the bower pick up a gay feather or a large leaf utter a curious kind of note set all his feathers erect, run round the bower and become so excited that his eyes appear ready to start from his head he continues opening first one wing then the other uttering a low whistling note and like the domestic cock seems to be picking up something from the ground until at last the female goes gently towards him. Captain Stokes has described the habits and play houses of another species the great bower bird which was seen

in its mouth. These curious creations formed solely as halls of assemblage where both sexes amuse themselves and pay their court must cost the birds much labor. The bower for instance of the fawn breasted species is nearly four feet in length eighteen inches in height and is raised on a thick platform of sticks.

Decoration—I will first discuss the cases in which the males are ornamented either exclusively or in a much higher degree than the females and in a succeeding chapter those in which both sexes are equally ornamented and finally the rare cases in which the female is somewhat more brightly coloured than the male. As with the artificial ornaments used by savage and civilized men so with the natural ornaments of birds the head is the chief seat of decoration. The ornaments, as mentioned

⁶ Gould *Handbook to the Birds of Australia* I. pp 444 449 453. The bower of the satin bower bird may be seen in the Zoological Society's Gardens, Regent's Park.

⁷ See remarks to this effect on the *Feeling of Beauty* in *Man* by Mr J Shaw in the 4th number of 1866 p 681.

at the commencement of this chapter are wonderfully diversified. The plumes on the front or back of the head consist of variously shaped feathers sometimes capable of erection or expansion by which their beautiful colours are fully displayed. Elegant ear tufts (see fig 39 ante) are occasionally present. The head is sometimes covered with velvet down, as with the pheasant or is naked and vividly coloured. The throat also is sometimes ornamented with a beard wattles or caruncles. Such appendages are generally brightly coloured and no doubt serve as ornaments, though not always ornamental in our eyes for whilst the male is in the act of courting the female they often swell and assume vivid tints, as in the male turkey.

On the throat and into two horns one on each side of the head. The most of the most held. The us inflates the neck and with its wings drooping and tail expanded makes quite a grand appearance. Even the iris of the eye is sometimes more brightly coloured in the male than in the female and this is frequently the case with the beak for instance in our common blackbird. In *Luceros corrigatus* the whole beak and immense caque are coloured more conspicuously in the male than in the female and the oblique grooves upon the sides of the lower mandible are peculiar to the male sex.

The head again often supports fleshy appendages filaments and solid protuberances. These if not common to both sexes are always confined to the males. The solid protuberances have been described in detail by Dr W Marshall⁸ who shows that they are formed either of cancellated bone coated with skin or of dermal and other tissues. With mammals true horns are always supported on the frontal bones but with birds various bones have been modified for this purpose and

the various gradations connecting these two extremes. Hence as Dr Marshall justly remarks Dr Marshall's work with colored figures in *Proc of Zool Soc of London* 18 2, p 730.

⁸ Mr Marshall's *Proc of Zool Soc of London* 18 2, p 730.

⁹ In 1831 1834 p 217.

¹⁰ The *Scandinavian* *Naturalist* A 18 f *Zoology* B 11 ft 2, 18 2.

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marks, variations of the most different kinds
as served f th d lopm nt thro gl se
tal selection of these ornam ntal ppe da es.
Elongated feath rs o pl m pring from
almost every part of th body Th f ath rs n
the throat and breast are some times d l ped
into beautiful ruff and collars. The tail f ath
ers are freq entl increased in length as w

five feet three inches," and th t of the beauti-
full ocellated seco dary wing f athers n arly
three feet. In a small African night jar (*Cu-
metornis exillarius*) one of the primary w g
feathers, during th breeding season, than a
length of tw nty six nches, whil t the l r l
itself is only ten inches in length. In an t
cl sely allied genus of night jars, th shafts of
the lo eated wing feath rs are

naked cept at the trem
t where th re is a disc.⁶¹
Again, in anoth r g nus of
lit jars, the tail feath rs are
n ull more prod ucl de-
veloped. In g n ralth f th rs
f th tail are more often lo
ted than those f th wings,
a an great lo gation of th
l t impedes fight. We thus
ee that in losely allied brds
nraments of the sam kind
ha e been gained by th males
through the developm nt of
wd ly diff rent feath rs.

It is a curious fact that the
feath rs f species belo g to
ery distin t gro ps ha been
modified in almost exactl the
sam peculiar mann r Thu
the wing f athers in one f th
abo m nt oned n ht jars are
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minat in disc o are, as th
are some times called poo r
rack t shaped F athers f thus
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m t (*F m m ta supercil aris*)
of lin fish r finch, hum
ming-bird, parrot, se ral In
dian drongos (*D crurus* and
Ed h n in on of whi th
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th tail f certain birds of par
adise In these latte birds, sim
lar f thers, bea tifully ocl
lated nrament th head as is
likew se th case with som gal

linaceous birds. In an Indian bustard (*Syp co-
tid rufus*) th feath rs f rming th ar
tufts, which are about f ur inches in l neth
also terminate in discs.⁶² It is a most singular

see in th tail-co rts f th peacock, and in
the tail itself f th Argus ph asant. With th
peacock th bo of tl tal b been
modified to support th l r tail-co rts.⁶³
Th bod of th Argus not larg than th t
of f l y t th length from th nd f th
beak t th tremuty of th tail is n less than

D W Marshall, Ober d V g lachwanz,
stab, B Heft 2, 15 2.

Jardine *Naturalist Library Birds*, vol. xi
p. 166
⁶¹Later in the *Ibis*, vol. vi., 1864, p. 114 Living-
stone, *Exposition to the Z mbra* 1863 p. 66
Jerd n, *Birds f India*, ol. iii. p. 620



FIG. 47. *Paradis papuana* (T W Wood)

fact that the motmots as Mr Saltin has clearly shown⁷⁰ give to their tail feathers the racket shape by biting off the barbs and further that this continued mutilation has produced a certain amount of inherited effect

Again the barbs of the feathers in various widely-distinct birds are filamentous or plumose as with some herons ibises birds of paradise and Gallinacæ In other cases the barbs disappear leaving the shafts bare from

dress comes to be admired by man so with birds a change of almost any kind in the structure or colouring of the feathers in the male appears to have been admired by the female The fact of the feathers in widely distinct groups having been modified in an analogous manner no doubt depends primarily on all the feathers having nearly the same structure and manner of development and consequently tending to vary in the same manner We often



FIG. 43. *Lophortyx alpestris* (J. A. Rehn)

end to end and these in the tail of the *Paradisæa apoda* attain a length of 1

see a ten line to analogous variability in the plumage of our domestic breeds belonging to distinct species Thus top-knots have appeared in several species In an extinct variety of the turkey the top knot consisted of bare quills surrounded with plumes of down so that they somewhat resembled the racket shaped feathers above described In certain breeds of the peacock and fowl the feathers are plumose with some tendency in the shafts to be naked In

⁷⁰ Proceed. Geol. Zool. Soc. N.Y. 1833 p. 49
⁷¹ Wallace in *Trans. Zool. Soc. N.Y.* 1857 p. 416
⁷² *Hist. Nat. de l'Alpe* vol. II 1869 p. 390



FIG. 49 *Spathar underwoods*, male and female (from Brehm).

the Sebastopol goose the scapular feathers are greatly elongated, curved, and spirally twisted, with the margins plumose.²

In regard to colour hardly anything need here be said, for every one knows how splendid are the tints of many birds, and how harmonious they are combined. The colours are often metallic and indescending. Circular spots are sometimes surrounded by one or more differently shaded zones, and are thus converted into ocelli. Need much be said on the wonderful difference between the sexes of many birds. The common peacock offers a striking instance. Female birds of paradise are obscurely coloured and destitute of all ornaments, whilst the males are probably the most highly decorated of all birds, and in so many different ways

that they must be seen to be appreciated. The elongated and golden-orange plumes which spring from beneath the wings of the *Paradis apoda*, when vertically erected and made to vibrate, are described as forming a sort of halo, in the centre of which the head "looks like a little emerald sun with its rays formed by the two plumes."³ In another most beautiful species the head is bald, "and of a rich cobalt blue, crossed by several lines of black velvet feathers."

Male humming-birds (figs. 48 and 49) almost vie with birds of paradise in their beauty

²Quoted from M. de Lafresnaye in *Annales et Mémoires de l'Académie d'Histoire* vol. xii., 1864, p. 15. See also Mr. Wallace's much fuller account in vol. ix., 1857, p. 412, and his *The Malay Archipelago*.

³See Wallace's *The Malay Archipelago*, vol. ii., 1862, p. 402.

⁴See my work on *The Evolution of Animals and Plants under Domestication*, vol. i., pp. 252, 253.

fact that the motmots as Mr Salvin has clearly shown⁷⁰ give to their tail feathers the racket shape by biting off the barbs and further that this continued mutilation has produced a certain amount of inherited effect.

Again the barbs of the feathers in various widely-distinct birds are filamentous or plumose as with some herons ibises birds of paradise and Gallinaceæ. In other cases the barbs disappear leaving the shafts bare from

dress comes to be admired by man so with birds a change of almost any kind in the structure or colouring of the feathers in the male appears to have been admired by the female. The fact of the feather

is nearly the same structure and manner of development and consequently tending to vary in the same manner. We often



FIG. 43. Laysan duck. 1. male. 2. female (from Brehm).

end to end and these in the tail of the *Paradisca apoda* attain a length of thirty-four inches⁷¹ in *P. Iapudana* (fig. 47) they are much shorter and thinner. Smaller feathers when thus denuded appear like bristles, as on the breast of the turkey-cock. As any fleeting fashion in

see a tendency to analogous variability in the plumage of our domestic breeds belonging to distinct species. Thus top-knots have appeared in several species. In an extinct variety of the turkey the top-knot consisted of quills

which they fastened to the shafts of the feathers. In some cases the shafts of the feathers were naked in

⁷⁰ *Proc. Zool. Soc. London* 1873 p. 429.
⁷¹ Wallace in *Annals and Magazine of Natural History* vol. xx 1837 p. 418 and in his *Malay Archipelago* vol. ii 1869 p. 390.

to them and it may perhaps be attributed to the direct action of the different conditions to which the birds are exposed during the two seasons. Thirdly, there are many other birds the sexes of which are alike but which are widely different in their summer and winter plumage. Fourthly, there are birds the sexes of which differ from each other in colour but the females, though moulting twice, retain the same colours throughout the year whilst the males undergo a change of colour some times greater than with certain bustards. Fifthly and lastly, there are birds the sexes of which differ from each other in both their summer and winter plumage but the male undergoes a great amount of change each recurrent season than the female—of which the ruff (*Macroteles pectoratus*) affords a good instance.

With respect to the cause and purpose of the differences in colour between the summer and winter plumage, this may in some instances, as with the ptarmigan, serve a good purpose as with the protection. When the difference

takes of the nature of the luxuriously masculine plumage.

It is slightly that the change can hardly be ascribed to them, and from the females of the species moulting twice yet retaining the same colours throughout the year we may conclude that the habit of annual moulting twice has not been acquired and that the male should assume an ornamental character during the breeding season but that the double moult, having been originally acquired for some distinct purpose has subsequently been taken advantage of in certain cases for gaining an ornamental plumage.

It appears at first sight a surprising circumstance that some closely allied species should regularly undergo a double annual moult, and

the ptarmigan, for

of India and some sub-genus of obscurely coloured species (*Anthus*) have a double annual moult. But the gradual change of plumage which are known to occur with various birds, as with some species, the whole group, might have originally acquired their double annual moult, having once gained the habit, they have lost it. With certain bustards and plovers the annual moult is far from complete, some feathers being renewed and some changed in colour. There is also reason to believe that with certain bustards and rail-like birds, which properly undergo a double moult, some of the older males retain their ornamental plumage throughout the year. A few highly modified feathers may merely be added during the spring to the plumage as occurs with the discoloured tail feathers of certain drosgos (*Bucconia*) in India, and with the so-called feathers on the back, neck, and crest of certain hawks. By which as these, the vernal

"In regard to the previous statement as moulting see, nipes, &c. Macgillivray *Hist. Brit. Birds*, vol. I, p. 31. Glareolar curlews, and bustards, Jerdon, *Birds of India*, vol. II, pp. 615-630. 663 on T. to us, ibid., p. 600. In the plumage of herons, ibid., p. 739, and Macgillivray, *ibid.*, pp. 433 and 444 and M. Stollard Allen, in *Ibis*, vol. I, 1863, p. 33.

"On the moulting of the ptarmigan, see Gould *Birds of Gt. Britain*, vol. II, p. 359. On the moulting of *Anthus*, see Blyth, in *Ibis* 1867, p. 32.

that the summer plumage is ornamental, in which both sexes are alike. When the colour of the plumage is the same with many herons, greys, &c., for the acquisition of the beautiful plumage during the breeding season. Moreover, such plumage, top-knots, &c., though possessed by both sexes, are occasionally little more developed in the male than in the female and they resemble the plumage and ornamentation possessed by the females alone of other birds. It is also known that confusion is brought about by affecting the reproductive system of male birds, frequently checks the development of the secondary sexual characters, but has not modified the appearance of the characters and I am informed by Mr. Bartlett that he has seen specimens of the knot (*Tringa caudata*) retained their unadorned winter plumage in the Zoological Garden through the year from which fact we may infer that the summer plumage though common to both sexes, par-

"The brown mottled summer plumage of the ptarmigan is of as much importance as the winter plumage, as the latter is the plumage for in Scandinavia during the spring the bird is now has disappeared, this bird is known to suffer greatly from birds of prey before it has acquired its summer dress see Wilhelm von Wahl, *Lloyd, G. m. Birds of Sweden*, 1867, p. 123.

excite, attract, or fascinate the females. But the males will sometimes display their ornaments, when not in the presence of the females, as occasionally occurs with grouse at their haunts, and as may be noticed with the peacock this latter bird, however evidently wishes for a spectator of some kind and as I have often seen, will show off his finery before poultry or even people. All naturalists who have closely attended to the habits of birds, whether in state of nature or under confine-

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India to come here -
pea-fowl, the males displaying their gorgeous trains, and trutting about in all the pomp of pride before the gratified females. The wild turkey-cock erects his glittering plumage expands his finely zoned tail and barred wing feathers, and altogether with his crimson and blue wattle, makes superb the sight, to our

eye grotesque appearance. Similar facts have already been given with respect to grouse of various kinds. Turning to another Order The male *P. pectoralis* (fig. 50) is one of the most beautiful birds in the world, being of a splendid orange with some of the feathers curiously truncated and plumose. The female is brownish green, shaded with red and has a much smaller crest. Sir R. Schomburgk has described the courtship of one of their meeting places where ten males and two females were present. The space was from four to five feet in diameter and appeared to have been cleared of every blade of grass and smoothed as if by human hands. A male was capering, to the apparent delight of several others. He was spreading his wings, throwing up his head, or pecking his bill a fan now strutting about with a hopping gait until tired, when it gabbled some kind of



FIG. 50. *P. pectoralis*, male (T. W. Wood).

ment, are unanimously of opinion that the males take delight in displaying their beauty

them to the greatest advantage before the female. Dr. Jerdon insists that the beautiful plumage of the male serves to fascinate and attract the female. Mr. Bartlett, in the Zoo-

nist and was relied on by the Indians, in order to obtain their skins, wait at one of the meeting places till the birds are eagerly engaged in dancing, and then are able to kill with their poisoned arrows four or five males, one after the other. With birds of paradise more full-plumaged males congregate in trees to hold dancing parties as it is called by the natives and here they fly about, raise their wings, exhibit their exquisite plumage, and make them vibrate and the whole tree seems, as Mr. Wallace remarks, to be filled with waving plumes. When thus engaged they

*See also Ornamental Poultry by Rev. E. S. Dix, p. 448, p. 8.

Birds of Paradise, vol. II, p. 507. See Gould's Introduction to the Trochilidae 1861 pp. 13 and 111.

*Journal of R. Geogr. Soc., vol. x., 1840, p. 236

become so absorbed that a skilful archer may shoot nearly the whole

se birds

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1. utters clean often spreading them out examining them and removing every speck of dirt One observer who kept several pairs alive did not doubt that the display of the male was intended to please the female⁸³

side In this attitude the ocelli over the whole body are exposed at the same time before the eyes of the admiring female in one grand be spangled expanse To whichever side she may turn the expanded wings and the obliquely held tail are turned towards her The male tragopan pheasant acts in nearly the same manner for he raises the feathers of the body though not the wing itself on the side which

The gold and Amherst pheasants during their courtship not only expand and raise their splendid frills but twist them as I have myself seen obliquely towards the female on which ever side she may be standing obviously in order that a large surface may be displayed before her⁸⁴ They likewise turn their beautiful tails and tail coverts a little towards the same side Mr Bartlett has observed a male Polyplectron (fig 51) in the act of courtship and has shown me a specimen stuffed in the attitude then assumed The tail and wing feathers of this bird are ornamented with beautiful ocelli like those on the peacock's train Now when the peacock displays himself he expands and erects his tail transversely to his body for he stands in front of the female and has to shew off at the same time his rich blue throat and breast But the breast of the Polyplectron is obscurely coloured and the ocelli are not confined to the tail feathers. Consequently the Polyplectron does not stand in front of the female but he erects and expands his tail feathers a little obliquely lowering the expanded wing on the same side and raising that on the opposite



FIG 51 Polyplectron male (T W Wood)

is opposite to the female and which would otherwise be concealed so that nearly all the beautifully spotted feathers are exhibited at the same time

The Argus pheasant affords a much more remarkable case The immensely developed secondary wing feathers are confined to the male and each is ornamented with a row of from twenty to twenty three ocelli, above an

¹ n is nd Mag f Nat H t. vol xii 1854
p 157 also Wallace Ind 1 x 1857 p 412 nd
Th Malay A h pet q 9 p 202 Also
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spots of a tiger and leopard combined. These beautiful ornaments are huddled so that the male shows himself before the female. He then erects his tail, and expands his wing feathers into a great,

bird in a state of nature for Mr Bartlett and his son on examining some perfect lines sent from the East, found a place between two of the feathers which was much frayed as if the head had here frequently been pushed through. Mr Wood thinks that the male can also peep at the female on the side beyond the margin of the fan.

The ocelli on the wing feathers are wonderful objects for the reason so shaded that, as the Duke of Argyll remarks, "they stand out like balls lying loosely within sockets. When I looked at the specimen in the British Museum which is mounted with the wings expanded and trailing downwards, I was however greatly disappointed if the ocelli appeared flat, or inconspicuous. But Mr Gould soon made the case clear to me, for he held the feathers erect, in the position in which they would naturally be displayed and now from the light shining on them from above each ocellus to the resemblance the ornament called a ball and socket. These feathers have been shown to several artists, and all have expressed their admiration at the perfect shading. It may well be asked, could such artistically shaded ornaments have been formed by means of sexual selection? But it will be convenient to defer giving an answer to this question until we treat in the next chapter of the principles of gradation.

The foregoing remarks relate to the secondary wing feathers, but the primary wing feathers, which in most gallinaceous birds are uniformly colored

are in the Argus pheasant equally wonderful. They are of a soft brown tint with numerous dark spots, each of which consists of two or three black dots with a round golden center. Between the chief ornament is a space parallel to the dark shaft, which in old females is a perfect second feather lying within the true feather. This in part is colored of a lighter

"The Ring of Law 1867 p 203

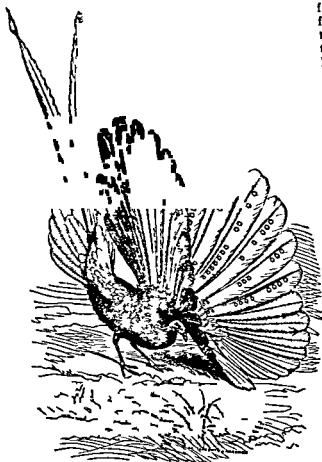


FIG. 52. Side view of male Argus pheasant, whilst displaying before the female. Observed and sketched from nature by Mr T. W. Wood.

almost frightful circular fan-shaped which is carried forward of the body. The neck and head are hidden so that the male is concealed by the fan of tail feathers in order to see the female before which he is displaying himself. Sometimes he pushes his head between two of the wing feathers (as Mr Bartlett has seen) and this presents a grotesque appearance. This must be frequent habit with the

chestnut and is thickly dotted with minute white points I have shewn this feather to several persons and many have admired it even more than the ball and socket feathers and have declared that it was more like a work of art than of nature. Now these feathers are quite hidden on all ordinary occasions but are fully displayed together with the long secondary feathers when they are all expanded together so as to form the great fan or shield.

The case of the male Argus pheasant is equally interesting because it affords good evidence that the most refined beauty may serve as a sexual charm and for no other purpose. We must conclude that this is the case as the secondary and primary wing feathers are not at all displayed and the ball and socket ornaments are not exhibited in full perfection until the male assumes the attitude of courtship. The Argus pheasant does not possess brilliant colours so that his success in love appears to depend on the great size of his plumes.

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males may deny that the female Argus pheasant can appreciate such refined beauty but he will then be compelled to admit that the extraordinary attitudes assumed by the male during the act of courtship by which the wonderful beauty of his plumage is fully displayed are purposeless and thus is a conclusion which I for one will never admit.

Although so many pheasants and allied gallinaceous birds carefully display their plumage before the females it is remarkable as Mr

Wallichius) so that these birds seem conscious that they have little beauty to display. Mr Bartley has never seen the males of either of these

not

the Cheer as the Lark

Weir also finds that all male birds with rich or strongly-characterised plumage are more quarrelsome than the dull-coloured species belonging to the same groups. The goldfinch for instance is far more pugnacious than the linnet, and the blackbird than the thrush

The birds which undergo a seasonal change of plumage likewise become much more pugnacious at the period when they are most gaily ornamented. No doubt the males of some obscurely-coloured birds fight desperately together but it appears that when sexual selection has been highly influential and has given bright colours to the males of any species it has also very often given a strong tendency to pugnacity. We shall meet with nearly analogous cases when we treat of mammals. On the other hand with birds the power of song and brilliant colours have rarely been both acquired by the males of the same species but in this case the advantage gained would have been the same namely success in charming the female. Nevertheless it must be owned that the males of several brilliantly coloured birds have had their feathers specially modified for the sake of producing instrumental music though the beauty of this cannot be compared at least according to our taste with that of the vocal music of many songsters.

We will now turn to male birds which are not ornamented in any high degree but which nevertheless display during their courtship whatever attractions they may possess. These cases are in some respects more curious than the foregoing and have been but little noticed. I owe the following facts to Mr Weir who has long been including large birds in his observations. The male of the female and then puffs out his breast so that many more of the crimson feathers are seen at once than otherwise would be the case. At the same time he twists and bows his black tail in a ludicrous manner.

bell as the rancid . . . the same time being slightly expanded with the pure white bands on the shoulders thus render them peculiar. The common linnet extends his royal crest lightly expands his brown wings and tail so as to make the best of them by exhibiting their white edgings. We must however be cautious in concluding that . . . reveal out solely for display as

SECONDARY SEXUAL CHARACTERS OF BIRDS

same time scraped on the ground. The male goldfinch behaves differently from all other finches: his wings are beautiful, the shoulders being black, with the dark tipped wing feathers omitted a thin white and edged with golden yellow. When he courts the female he starts his body from side to side and quickly turns his slightly expanded wings first to one side, then to the other, with a golden flashing effect. Mr. Weir informs me that no other British finch turns thus from side to side during his courtship, not even the closely allied male robin, for he would not thus add to his beauty.

Most of the British buntings are plain coloured birds but in the spring the feathers on the head of the male reed-bunting (*Emberiza hortulana*) acquire a fine black colour by the action of the dusky tips and these are erected during the act of courtship. Mr. Weir has kept two species of *Amadina* from Australia: the *A. castaneiventris* is a very small and chastely coloured finch, with a dark tail, white rump, and jet-black upper tail-coverts, each of the latter being marked with three large conspicuous vertical spots of white. This species, he courting the female slightly spreads out and vibrates these parti-coloured tail-coverts in a very peculiar manner. The male

half expands his wings. He then alternately and slowly raises and depresses his body so that the red scent in tail feathers are all seen at once and glitters in the sun.

Sufficient facts have now been given to show with what care male birds display their various charms, and thus they do with the utmost skill. Whilst preening their feathers, they have frequent opportunities for admiring themselves, and of judging how best to exhibit their beauty. But as all the males of the same species display themselves in exactly the same manner, it appears that actions, at first perhaps intentional, have become instinctive. If so, we ought not to accuse birds of conscious vanity, yet when we see a peacock strut about, with expanded and quivering tail feathers, he seems the very emblem of pride and vanity.

The various ornaments possessed by the males are certainly of the highest importance to them, for in some cases they have been acquired at the expense of greater impeded powers of flight or of running. The African nightjar (*Caprimulgus*) which during the pairing season has one of its primary wing-feathers developed into a streamer of very great length, is thereby much retarded in its flight, although, at other times remarkable for its swiftness. The new size of the secondary wing-feathers of the male Argus pheasant is said almost entirely to depend on the bird's flight. The fine plumes of male birds of paradise

colours and these, it might be thought could never be well exhibited but the bird when excited often spreads them out laterally so that they can be seen from above. The crimson and tail-coverts of some of the birds as with the woodpeckers, *Picus* may or can be seen without any such display. The common pigeon has undescent feathers on the breast, and every one must have seen how the male inflates his breast whilst courting the female, thus showing them off to the best advantage. One of the beautiful bronze-winged pigeons of Australia (*Oryzopsis lophota*) he inflates, as described to me by Mr. Weir very differently: the male whilst standing before the female lowers his head almost to the ground, spreads out and raises his tail, and

ably do not suffer much inconvenience in searching for food from their impeded powers of movement but there can hardly be a doubt that they must be much more liable to be struck down by birds of prey. We can hardly doubt that the long train of the peacock and the long tail and wing-feathers of the Argus pheasant must render them an easy prey to an prowling tiger-cat than would otherwise be the case. Even the bright colours of many male birds cannot fail to make them conspicuous to their enemies of all kinds. Hence as Mr. Gould has remarked, it probably is that such birds are generally of shy disposition, as if conscious that their beauty was a source of danger and are much more difficult to discover on approach, than the sombre coloured

For the description of these birds, see Gould's *Handbook of the Birds of Australia*, vol. I, 1862, p. 61.

and comparatively tame females or than the young and as yet unadorned males."

It is a more curious fact that the males of some birds which are provided with special weapons for battle and which in a state of nature are so pugnacious that they often kill each other suffer from possessing certain ornaments. Cock-fighters trim the hackles and cut off the combs and wattle.

The rooster's beak and as a cock always strikes where he holds when once he has seized his foe he has him entirely in his power.

On the Cosmetorn see Livingstone Expeditions to the Zambesi.

Expeditions
p. 167
rel m
B r
vol

Could not find any of the birds. Ha-dbo to Birds of India vol. 1 1865 pp. 210 & 7.

Even supposing that the bird is not killed the loss of blood suffered by an undubbed cock is much greater than that sustained by one that has been trimmed. Young turkey-cocks in fighting always seize hold of the wattle.

Combs and wattles are not ornamental and cannot be of service to the birds in this way but even to our eyes the beauty of the glossy black Spanish cock is much enhanced by his white face and crimson comb and no one who has ever seen the splendid blue wattles of the male tragopan pheasant destined in courtship can for a moment doubt that beauty is the object gained. From the foregoing facts we clearly see that the plumes and other ornaments of the males must be of the highest importance to them and we further see that beauty is even sometimes more important than success in battle.

*Tegetmeier *The Poultry Book* 1866 p. 139

CHAPTER XIV

BIRDS—Continued

When the sexes differ in beauty in the power of singing, in producing what I have called instrumental music it is almost invariably the male which surpasses the female. This is the case with all the birds I have seen, regardless of the species. When they are

... tions, and oft performs tangential ... ground in the air the presence of the ...

... have the same habits. The fowls discover the hawks while the ruffs congregate by the grass being trampled bare and the hawks sit at the same spot in the frequented Th. Ind. and the Guanas are well acquainted with the cleared areas, where they expect to find the beautiful cocks of the rock and the nests of New Guinea in the trees where from ten to twenty male birds of paradise in full plumage congregate. In this latter case it is not expressed that the females meet in the same trees, but the hunters, if not specially asked would probably not mention the presence, as the ruffs are ... Small part of an African we (Ploceus) congregate during the breeding season and perform the same graceful evolutions. Lagomys (Sceloporus) as

... attract in many cases ... choice, and prefer certain males. This little quebec can be answered in the affirmative by much direct and direct evidence. It is far more difficult to decide what qualities determine the choice of the females but here again we have some direct and direct evidence that it is to large extent the mutual attractions of the male through his gorgeous courting and the mutual qualities come into play. We will begin with the indirect evidence

... running about like so many ants, pushing the feathers, flapping their wings, and uttering the strange noises.

Some of the above birds,—the black-cock, capercaillie, pheasant, grouse, ruff, solitary snipe and peewees, others,—are as is believed polygamists. With the birds it might have been thought that the strong males would simply have driven away the weak and then the weaker would possess themselves as many females as possible but if this be indispensable for the male to attract the female we can understand the length of their courtship and the coöperation of so many and various of both sexes in the same point. Certain strictly monogamous species like wise build their nests in places that seem to be the case in Scandinavia

... act of nature. Thus in Germany and Scandinavia

... in the bird congregate in the flocks and the same place frequently during the season. The flock of the capercaillie last from the end of March to the middle of May. In the Amur the peewee dance of the *Tetrastix phasianella* last for two months more. Other kinds of geese both in the Amur and East Siberia, fill with

Moscow, 1861 tom. xxxi p. 264) the balance of the *Agallus* in Amur. Last estimate of the number of birds assembled together hundred, the count of the males, which had the unround gular sacs. These were differed from those of the ...

Norman describes (Bull. Soc. Imp. de Nat., 1857 p. 412. On the snipe. L. J. d. and p.

BIRDS

CAP XIV

survivor re-matched. Mr Fox, Mr F Bond, and others have shot one of a pair of carrion-crows (*Corvus corone*) but the nest was soon untenanted by a pair. These birds are never common but the peregrine-falcon (*Falco peregrinus*) is rare. J. M. Thompson states that in Ireland if the old male or female be killed in the breeding season (not an uncommon circumstance) another male will find this error and so that the nest, notwithstanding such casualties, are sure to turn out their complement of young. Mr J. N. Wier has known the same thing with the peregrine-falcons at Beachy Head. The same observer informs me that three kestrels (*Falco tinnunculus*) all males, were killed on after the other whilst attending the same nest two of these were in mature plumage but the third was in the plumage of the previous year. E. N. Mr B. Kibbey was assured by a trustworthy gamekeeper in Scotland, that if one of a pair of golden eagles (*Aquila chrysaetos*) is killed, another is soon found. So with the whistling thrush (*Turdus merula*) the survivor readily finds another.

the same day Mr Engel heart also informs me that he used during several years to shoot one of a pair of starlings which built in a hole in a house at Blackheath but the loss was always immediately repaired. During one season he kept an account, and found that he had shot thirty-five birds from the same nest. The composition consisted of both males and females, but in what proportion I could not say nevertheless, after all this destruction, a brood was reared.

These facts well deserve attention. If we see that there are birds in a high ready to replace immediately lost mate of either sex. Magpies, jays, carrion-crows, partridges, and some other birds, are always seen during the spring in pairs, and not by themselves and these offer the first sight the most perplexing cases. But birds of the same sex, although of course not truly paired sometimes in pairs or in small parties, as is known to be the case with pigeons and partridges. Birds also sometimes lay triplets, as has been observed with

parrots, when a pair of them are found of their nests, to be shot but the which as left, the cock hen, present procured mate and so for several times following. I could add analogous cases relating to the chaffinch, nightingale and redstart. With respect to the last bird (*Phoenicurus phoenicurus*) I write expresses much surprise with the sitting female could so soon have given effectual notice that she was widowed with the species as not common in the neighbourhood. Mr Jenner Wier has mentioned to me in a similar case at Blackheath he has seen bears the note of the wild bullfinch, but when one of his caged males had died whilst on in the course of the day he had come and perched on the wire of the male whose call-note is not loud I will give only on the fact on the theory of this same observation one of a pair of starlings (*Stellina vulgaris*) was shot in the morning but noon new mate was found this was again shot, but before night the pair was complete so that the disconsolate widow or widower was thence consoled during

widow or widower. The males of the same species occasionally behave and pouring forth their lamentations after the proper time, showing that they have the lost one gained again. Death from accident or disease of one of a pair would leave the free and single and there is reason to believe that female birds during the breeding-season are especially liable to premature death. Again, birds which have had their nests destroyed or barren pairs, retarded individuals, would easily be induced to desert their mates, and would probably be glad to take what share they could of the pleasures and duties of rearing off spring although not their own. Such considerations

Of the peregrine falcon, see Thompson, *Nat. Hist. of Ireland* vol. I, 1849, p. 39. Of jays, partridges, and partridges, see White, *Nat. Hist. of S. Ireland* ed. of 1853, vol. I, p. 139. Of the Phoenicurus, see London *Mag. of Nat. Hist.*, vol. II, 1834, p. 245. Brehm (*Thierleben*, II, s. 991) also alludes to cases of birds thrice mated during the same day. See White (*Nat. Hist. of S. Ireland* 1853, vol. I, p. 140) the first early the season of small covers of male partridges, of which fact I have heard other in the case. See Jenner the retarded of the great rats among certain birds, *Ph. L. T. tract.* vol. 4 In regard to birds living in triplets, I owe to Mr J. N. Wier the cases of the starling and parrots, and to Mr Fox, of partridges and carrion-crows, see *F. M.* 1856, p. 415. Of various

re act
 " " same district during the height of the breeding season there should be so many males and females always ready to repair the loss of a mated bird. Why do not such spare birds immediately pair together? Have we not some reason to suspect, and the suspicion has occurred to Mr Jenner Weir that as the courtship of birds appears to be in many cases prolonged and tedious so it occasionally happens that certain males and females do not succeed during the proper season in exciting each other's love and consequently do not pair. This suspicion will appear some what less improbable after we have seen what strong antipathies and preferences female birds occasionally evince towards particular males.

Mental Qualities of Birds and their Taste for the Beautiful—Before we further discuss the question whether the females select the more attractive males or accept the first whom they may encounter it will be advisable briefly to consider the mental powers of birds. Their reason is generally and perhaps justly ranked as low yet some facts could be given leading to an opposite conclusion. Low powers of reasoning however are compatible as we see with mankind with strong affections acute perception and a taste for the beautiful and

male birds sing after the proper period see Rev L J N S, *Observations on the History* 1816 p 87

l d r y th ld es by fl h t ext d th d y h h ks our th t n k l d nd th l ft t est O retu g ft r w rd h f u d t o m re h r t bl ind d ls tl san e r r d f m r y O of th se h k l l d th h ls h t, but co ld n t f rd n r e cam th l k f u t l s r r t I m d b t d t l r o f n w t n f r th f l g passag from M f n t l u t out hat l m re ld g od f t l n t ed h rd l l

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it is with these latter qualities that we are here concerned. It has often been said that parrots become so deeply attached to each other that when one dies the other pines for a long time but Mr Jenner Weir thinks that with most birds the strength of their affection has been much exaggerated. Nevertheless when one of a pair in a state of nature has been shot the survivor has been heard for days afterwards uttering a plaintive call and Mr St John gives various facts proving the attachment of mated birds. Mr Bennett relates¹¹ that in China after a drake of the beautiful mandarin teal had been stolen the duck remained disconsolate though sedulously courted by another mandarin drake who displayed before her all his charms. After an interval of three weeks the stolen drake was recovered and instantly the pair recognised each other with extreme joy. On the other hand starlings, as we have seen may be consoled thrice in the same day for the loss of their mates. Pigeons have such excellent local memories that they have been known to return

could remain mated for life be separated for a few weeks during the winter and afterwards matched with other birds, the two when brought together again rarely if ever recognise each other.

Birds sometimes exhibit benevolent feelings they will feed the deserted young ones even of distinct species but this perhaps ought to be considered as a mistaken instinct. They will feed as shewn in an earlier part of this work adult birds of their own species which have become blind. Mr Buxton gives a curious account of a parrot which took care of a fallen and crippled bird of a distinct species, cleansed her feathers and defended her from the attacks of the other parrots which roamed freely about his garden. It is a still more curious fact that the c birds apparently cure some sympathy for the pleasures of their fellows. When a pair of cockatoos made a nest in an acacia tree it was ridiculous to see the extravagant interest taken in the matter by the others of the same species. The parrots also evinced unbounded curiosity and clearly

T T th t nd h l i 1842 p 183 Dr B l r m y (B d f y a Z of nd l y 2 p 26) t t l k ng r y a k l l d t h f m le f r t l d p d r f u d h r f o o d d d d of brok l r t B nd r y g n New S th H ale vol 1834 p 62.

BIRDS

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had the idea of property and possession. In the Zoological Gardens they have plainly recognised the former masters after an interval of some months.

Birds possess acute powers of observation. Every mated bird, of course, recognises its fellow. And bonapartes that certain number of mocking-throats (*Mimus polyglottus*) remain all the year round in Louisiana, whilst some in the East migrate there.

DECEMBER 17, 1863.

different persons, as is proved by the strong and permanent attachment which they bear to various certain individuals. I have heard of numerous instances with jaegers, hawks, and anes, and especially with linniches. Mr. Huxley has described in how extraordinary manner a tame parrot recognised everybody and its likes and dislikes were very true. This bird seemed fond of gay colours, and no new gown or cap could be put on without catching his attention. Mr. Huxley has described the habits of some ducks (recently descended from wild-geese) which, at the approach of a strange dog or cat, would rush headlong into the water and exhaust themselves in attempts to escape, but then when Mr. Huxley would go and cats so well that they would lie down and bask in the sun close to them. They also moved away from strange men, and so they would from the lady who attended them if she made a great bang in her dress. Audubon relates that he reared and tamed wild turkeys which always ran away from a strange dog. This bird escaped into the woods, and some days afterwards Audubon saw as he thought, a wild turkey and made his dog chase it but to his astonishment, the bird did not run away and the dog, when he came, did not attack the bird, for the man readily recognised each other as old friends.

Mr. Jenner Wei is convinced that birds pay particular attention to the colours of other birds some times of jealousy and some times as a mark of kinship. This is true.

12. Acclimatization of Parrots, by C. Buxton. M. P. A. new ed. M. G. of Nat. Hist. N. 1863, p. 351. The Zoologist, 1847-48, p. 1602.

13. The wild ducks, J. Gould of Horticulture. Jan. 13, 1863, p. 39. Audubon on the wild turkey. Ornithological Biography, vol. 1, p. 14. On the mocking-throats, ibid., vol. 1, p. 110.

reed bunting (*Emberiza schanclus*) which had acquired its black head-dress, into his army and the newcomer was not noticed by an bird except by a bullfinch, who like-wise black-headed. This bullfinch was a very quiet bird, and had never before quarrelled with any of its comrades, including another reed-bunting, who had not as yet become black-headed but the reed-bunting with a black head was so unmercifully treated that it had to be removed. *Sylvia janca*, during the breeding season, is of bright blue colour and though generally peaceable it attacked *Sylvia* which has only the head blue and compared to the unfortunate bird Mr. W. R. was also obliged to turn out a robin, as it finally attacked all the birds in his aviary with an red in the plumage but no other kind, and actually killed a red-breasted cross-bill, and nearly killed a goldfinch. On the other hand, I have observed that some birds, when first introduced, fly toward the species which resemble them most in colour and settle by the sides.

A male bird displays its fine plumage and other ornaments with so much care before the eyes of males, it is obviously probable that these appreciate the beauty of the suitors. It is, however, difficult to obtain direct evidence of this capacity to appreciate beauty. When looking through a glass (of

course) and admiring it. It perhaps the first thing which, as stated by Lord Lillie, is attractive to the ruffian and a bright object, so that, in the I can I lands, it will dart down to a bright-coloured handkerchief regardless of repeated shots. The common lark is drawn down from the sky and caught in large numbers, by a small mirror made to move and glitter in the sun. Is it admiration or curiosity which leads the magpie to stare at other birds? Is it teal and secret bright objects, such as silver articles of jewelry.

Mr. Gould states that certain humming-birds decorate the outside of their nests with the utmost taste. The instinct is fast and there are useful pieces of flat lichen, the large piece in the middle and the small in the part attached to the branch. Now and then a pretty feather is not retained or fastened.

14. The lark, vol. II, 1860, p. 341.

to the outer sides the stem being always so placed that the feather stands out beyond the surface. The best evidence however of a taste for the beautiful is afforded by the three genera of Australian bower birds already mentioned. Their bowers (see fig 4 p 463) where the sexes congregate and play strange antics are variously constructed but what most concerns us is that they are decorated by the several species in a different manner. The satin bower bird collects gaily coloured articles such as the bl of par
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" Mr Gould found in one bower a neatly worked stone tomahawk and a slip of blue cotton evidently procured from a native encampment. These objects are continually rearranged and carried about by the birds whilst at play. The bower of the spotted bower bird is beautifully lined with tall grasses so disposed that the heads nearly meet and the decorations are very profuse. Round stones are used to keep the grass stems in their proper places and to make divergent paths leading to the bower. The stones and shells are often brought from a great distance. The regent bird as described by Mr Ramsay ornaments its short bower with bleached land shells belonging to five or six species and with berries of various colours blue red and black which give it when fresh a very pretty appearance. Besides these there were several newly picked leaves and young hoots of a pinkish colour the whole shewing a decided taste for the beautiful. Well may Mr Gould say that these highly decorated halls of assembly must be regarded as the most wonderful instances of bird architecture yet discovered and the taste as we see of the several species certainly differs.¹⁶

Reference for particular Males by the females—Having made these preliminary remarks on the discrimination and taste of birds I will give all the facts known to me which bear on the preference shewn by the female for particular males. It is certain that distinct species of birds occasionally pair in a state of nature and produce hybrids. Many instances could be given thus Macgillivray relates how a male blackbird and a female thrush fell in

love with each other and produced a spring.¹⁷ Several years ago eighteen cases had been recorded of the occurrence in Great Britain of hybrids between the black grouse and pheasant¹⁸ but most of these cases may perhaps be accounted for by solitary birds not finding one of their own species to pair with. With other birds reason
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many have become absolutely fascinated with each other although living with their own species. Thus Waterton¹⁹ states that out of a flock of twenty C

produced hybrid offspring. A male wigeon (*Mareca penelope*) living with females of the same species has been known to pair with a pintail duck. *Querquedula acuta* Lloyd describes the remarkable attachment between a shield drake (*Tadorna tigris*) and a common duck. Many additional instances could be given and the Rev L S Dixon remarks that those who have kept many different species of geese together well know what unaccountable attachments they are frequently forming and that they are quite as likely to pair and rear young with individuals of a race (species) apparently the most alien to themselves as with their own stock.

The Rev W D Fox informs me that he possessed at the same time a pair of Chinese geese (*Anser cygnoides*) and a common gander with three geese. The two lots kept quite separate until the Chinese gander secured one of the common geese to live with him. Moreover of the young birds hatched from the eggs of the common geese only four were pure the other eight proving hybrids so that the Chinese gander seems to have had prepotent charms over the common gander. I will give only one other case. Mr Hewitt states that a willow reared in captivity

History of B B d L p 92

Zoologist 1853-1854 p 3940

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BIRDS

ZAL. XIV

breeding a couple of seasons with his own mallard, at once shook him off on my pacing male pintail in the water. It was evidently a case of love at first sight, for he swam about the new-comer caressing her, though he appeared evidently alarmed and averse to her virtues of affection. From that hour she forgot her old partner. Winter passed by and the next spring the pintail seemed to have become content with her blandishments, for they nested and produced several offspring.

What the charm may have been in these several cases, beyond mere novelty we cannot conjecture. Colour however sometimes comes into play for in order to raise hybrids from the siskin (*Fringilla pyrrhuloxia*) and the canvasback it is much the best plan, according to Beckstein, to place birds of the same tint together. Mr. Jenn Weir turned a female canvasback into his aviary where there were male finches, goldfinches, siskins, greenfinches, chaffinches, and the birds, in order to see which he would choose but there was any doubt, and the greenfinch carried the day. They paired and produced hybrid offspring.

The fact of the female preferring to pair with one male rather than with another of the same species is not so likely to attract attention, as when this occurs, as we have just seen, between distinct species. The former cases can best be observed with domesticated confined birds but these are often pampered by high feeding, and sometimes have their instincts trampled to an extreme degree. Of this latter fact I could give sufficient proof with pigeons, and especially with fawns, but they cannot be here related. Vitiating instincts may also account for some of the hybrid unions also mentioned but in many of these cases the birds were allowed to range freely over large ponds, and there is no reason to suppose that they were unnaturally tampered by high feeding.

With respect to birds in a state of nature, the first and most obvious proposition which will occur to any one is that the female in the proper season accepts the first male whom she may encounter but she has at least the opportunity of exercising choice, as she is almost invariably pursued by many males. Audubon—and we must remember that he spent long hours in prolonged observation of the United States and observing the birds—does not doubt that the female deliberately chooses her mate thus, peaking of a wood

pecker he says the hen is followed by half-a-dozen goshawks, who continue performing antics, until a marked preference is shown for one. The female of the red-winged starling (*Agelaius phoeniceus*) is likewise pursued by several males, until, becoming fatigued she alights, receives their addresses, and soon makes a choice. He describes also how several male nightjars repeatedly plunge through the air with astonishing rapidity and only turning and thus making a singular noise but no sooner has the female made her choice than the other males are driven away. With none of the vultures (*Cathartes aura*) of the United States, parties of eight, ten, or more males and females assemble on fallen logs, "exhibiting the strongest desire to please mutually and after many caresses, each male leads off his partner on the wing. Audubon likewise carefully observed the wild flocks of the Canada goose (*Branta canadensis*) and geese.

until after which, although they remained to the any person could easily perceive that they were careful to keep in pairs. I have observed also that the latter birds in short were the preliminaries of their courtship. The bachelors and old maids whether in regret, or not caring to be disturbed by the bustle quietly moved aside and lay down at

has learnt respecting the subject. I have received long letters on this subject from Messrs. Hutton and T. G. Martin and almost an essay from the late Mr. Brent. It will be admitted by any one that these gentlemen, so well known from their published works, are careful and experienced observers. They do not believe that the female prefers certain males account of the beauty of their plumage but some allowance must be made for the artificial state under which these birds have long been kept. Mr. T. G. Martin is convinced that gamecock, though disfigured by being dubbed and with his hackles trimmed

and see *Ornithological Biography* vol. 1. pp. 191, 349 vol. 2. pp. 42, 273 vol. 3. p. 2.

would be accepted as readily as a male retaining all his natural ornaments Mr Brent, however admits that the beauty of the male probably aids in exciting the female and her acquiescence is necessary Mr Hewitt is convinced that the union is by no means left to mere chance for the female almost invariably prefers the most vigorous defiant and mettlesome male hence it is almost useless as he remarks to attempt true breeding if a game cock in good health and condition runs the locality for almost every hen on leaving the roosting place will resort to the game cock even though that bird may not actually drive away the male of her own variety Under ordinary circumstances the males and females of the fowl seem to come to a mutual understanding by means of certain gestures described to me by Mr Brent. But hens will often avoid the officious attentions of young males Old hens and hens of a pugnacious disposition as the same writer informs me dislike strange males and will not yield until well beaten into complaisance Ferguson however describes how a quarrelsome hen was subdued by the gentle courtship of a Shanghai cock¹

There is reason to believe that pigeons of both sexes prefer pairing with birds of the same breed and dovecot pigeons dislike all the highly improved breeds.²² Mr Harrison Weir has lately heard from a trustworthy observer who keeps blue pigeons that the dove drive away all other coloured varieties such as white red and yellow and from another observer that a female dun carrier could not, after repeated trials be matched with a black male but immediately paired with a dun. Again Mr Tegetmeier had a female blue turbot that obstinately refused to pair with two males of the same breed which were successively shut up with her for weeks but on being let out she would have immediately accepted the first blue dragon that offered. As

ness as a general rule colour appears to have little influence on the pairing of pigeons. Mr Tegetmeier at my request stained some of his birds with magenta but they were not much noticed by the others

Female pigeons occasionally feel a strong

antipathly towards certain males, without any assignable cause Thus MM Bottaud and Corbie whose experience extended over fifteen years state *Quand une femelle s'oppose de l'antipathie pour un male avec lequel on veut l'accoupler malgré tous les feux de l'amour malgré l'alpiste et le chénérus dont on la noie pour augmenter son ardeur malgré un emprisonnement de six mois et meme d'un an elle refuse constamment ses caresses les avances empressées les agaceries les tournoiemens les tendres roucoulemens rien ne peut lui plaire ni l'emouvoir gonflée boudeuse blottie dans un coin de sa prison elle n'en sort que pour boire et manger ou pour repousser avec une espèce de rage des caresses devenues trop pressantes* 2 On the other hand Mr Harrison Weir has himself observed and has heard from several breeders that a female pigeon will occasionally take a strong fancy for a particular male and will desert her own mate for him Some females according to another experienced breeder Riedel are of a profligate disposition, and prefer almost any stranger to their own mate Some amorous males called by our English fanciers gay birds are so successful in their gallantries that as Mr H Weir informs me they must be shut up on account of the mischief which they cause

Wild turkeys in the United States, according to Audubon sometimes pay their addresses to the domesticated females, and are generally received by them with great pleasure. So that these females apparently prefer the wild to their own males.⁴

There is a more curious case Sir R. H. Ross during many years kept an account of the habits of the peafowl which he bred in large numbers. He states that the hens have frequently great preference to a particular peafowl. They were all so fond of an old pied cock, that one year when he was confined though still in view they were constantly assembled close to the three walls of his prison and would not suffer a jappanned peacock to touch them. On his being let out in the autumn the old st of the hens instantly courted him and was successful in the courtship. The next year he was shut up in a tall and then the hen

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 Z o o l g S o c 1835 p 54 d t h R E S D n.
 O m n i a l P u l t y 1848 p 8 F t h t u r j A u -
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 B d f S e d e n, 1867 p 23
 M H t h, q t e d T g t m P l i r y B o o k
 1866 p 163

would be accepted as readily as a male retaining all his natural ornaments Mr Brent however admits that the beauty of the male probably aids in exciting the female and her acquiescence is necessary Mr Hewitt is convinced that the union is by no means left to mere chance for the female almost invariably prefers the most vigorous defiant and mettlesome male hence it is almost useless as his remarks to attempt true breeding if a game cock in good health and condition runs the locality for almost every hen on leaving the roosting place will resort to the game cock even though that bird may not actually drive away the male of her own variety Under ordinary circumstances the males and females of the fowl seem to come to a mutual understanding by means of certain gestures described to me by Mr Brent But hens will often avoid the officious attentions of young males Old hens and hens of a pugnacious disposition as the same writer informs me dislike strange males and will not yield until well beaten into compliance Ferguson however describes how a quarrelsome hen was subdued by the gentle courtship of a Shanghai cock²¹

There is reason to believe that pigeons of both sexes prefer pairing with birds of the same breed and dovecot pigeons dislike all the highly improved breeds²² Mr Harrison Weir has lately heard from a trustworthy observer who keeps blue pigeons that these drive away all other coloured varieties such as white red and yellow and from another observer that a female dun carrier could not after repeated trials be matched with a black male but immediately paired with a dun Again Mr Tegetmeier had a female blue turbit that obstinately refused to pair with two males of the same breed which were successively shut up with her for weeks but on being let out she would have immediately accepted the first blue dragoon that offered²³

as a general rule colour appears to govern the pairing of pigeons and they are not much noticed by the others Female pigeons occasionally feel a strong

²¹ *Illustrations of Poultry* 1864 p 27
²² *Illustrations of Poultry* 1864 p 103
²³ *Illustrations of Poultry* 1864 p 103

antipathy towards certain males without any assignable cause Thus MM Boitard and Corbin whose experience extended over forty five years state *Quand une femelle éprouve de l'antipathie pour un male avec lequel on veut l'accoupler malgré tous les feux de l'amour malgré l'alpiste et le clénérus dont on la nourrit pour augmenter son ardeur malgré un emprisonnement de six mois et même d'un an elle refuse constamment ses caresses les avances empressées les agaceries les tournoiemens les tendres roucoulemens rien ne peut lui plaire ni l'emouvoir gonflée boudeuse blottie dans un coin de sa prison elle n'en sort que pour boire et manger ou pour repousser avec une espèce de rage des caresses devenues trop pressantes*²⁴ On the other hand Mr Harrison Weir has himself observed and has heard from several breeders that a female pigeon will occasionally take a strong fancy for a particular male and will desert her own mate for him Some females according to another experienced observer Riedel²⁵ are of a profligate disposition, and prefer almost any stranger to their own mate Some amorous males called by our English fanciers gay birds are so successful in their gallantries that as Mr H Weir informs me they must be shut up on account of the mischief which they cause

Wild turkeys in the United States according to Audubon sometimes pay their addresses to the domesticated females and are generally received by them with great pleasure So that these females apparently prefer the wild to their own males²⁶

Here is a more curious case Sir R. Heron during many years kept an account of the habits of the peafowl which he bred in large numbers He states that the hens have frequently great preference to a particular peafowl They were all so fond of an old pied cock that one year when he was confined though till in view they were constantly assembled close to the trellis walls of his prison and would not suffer a Japanese peacock to touch them On his being let out in the autumn the oldest of the hens instantly courted him and was successful in her courtship The next year he was shut up in a stable and then the hen

²⁴ *Illustrations of Poultry* 1864 p 103
²⁵ *Illustrations of Poultry* 1864 p 103
²⁶ *Illustrations of Poultry* 1864 p 103
²⁷ *Illustrations of Poultry* 1864 p 103
²⁸ *Illustrations of Poultry* 1864 p 103
²⁹ *Illustrations of Poultry* 1864 p 103
³⁰ *Illustrations of Poultry* 1864 p 103
³¹ *Illustrations of Poultry* 1864 p 103
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³⁶ *Illustrations of Poultry* 1864 p 103
³⁷ *Illustrations of Poultry* 1864 p 103
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⁴³ *Illustrations of Poultry* 1864 p 103
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⁴⁶ *Illustrations of Poultry* 1864 p 103
⁴⁷ *Illustrations of Poultry* 1864 p 103
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⁹³ *Illustrations of Poultry* 1864 p 103
⁹⁴ *Illustrations of Poultry* 1864 p 103
⁹⁵ *Illustrations of Poultry* 1864 p 103
⁹⁶ *Illustrations of Poultry* 1864 p 103
⁹⁷ *Illustrations of Poultry* 1864 p 103
⁹⁸ *Illustrations of Poultry* 1864 p 103
⁹⁹ *Illustrations of Poultry* 1864 p 103
¹⁰⁰ *Illustrations of Poultry* 1864 p 103

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²⁴Ind oduction to the *T ochlidae* p 101

²⁵G uld, H ndbook f B d f A st alia L n.,
 pp 32 d 68.

²⁶Aud bo O th logical Biogr phy 18-8, L
 p 359

²⁷Jerdon, B d f India, L p 108 d M
 Blyth, Land nd Water 1868, p 391

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Whether this statement is credible I know not but the native sportsmen shoot these female males in order to stuff them as decoys :

With respect to female birds feeling a preference for particular males we must bear in mind that we can judge of choice being exerted only by analogy. If an inhabitant of another planet were to behold a number of young rustics at a fair courting a pretty girl and quarrelling about her like birds at one of their places of assemblage he would by the eagerness of the wooers to please her and to display their finery infer that she had the power of choice. Now with birds the evidence stands thus they have acute powers of observation and they seem to have some taste for the beautiful both in colour and sound. It is certain that the females occasionally exhibit from unknown causes the strongest antipathies and preferences for particular males. When the sexes differ in colour or in other ornaments the males with rare exceptions are more decorated only during the season when they display their

colours and their voices and perform strange antics in the presence of the females. Even well armed males who it might be thought would altogether depend for success on the law of battle are in most cases highly ornamented and their ornaments have been acquired at the expense of some loss of power. In other cases ornaments have been acquired at the cost of increased risk from birds and beasts of prey. With various species many individuals of both sexes congregate at the same spot and their courtship is a prolonged affair. There is even reason to suspect that the males and females within the same district do not always succeed in pleasing each other and pairing.

What then are we to conclude from

1. The female exerts a choice and that she receives the addresses of the male who pleases her most? It is not probable that she consciously deliberates but that she is excited or attracted by the most beautiful or melodious, or gallant males. Nor need it be supposed that the female studies each stripe or tint of colour that the peahen for instance admires each detail in the gorgeous train of the peacock—she is probably struck only by the general effect. Nevertheless after long and careful

1. It is again how the male goldfinch alternately displays his golden pangled wings, we ought not to feel too sure that the female does not attend to each detail of beauty. We can judge as already remarked of choice being exerted only from analogy and the mental powers of birds do not differ fundamentally from ours. From these various considerations we may conclude that the pairing of birds is not left to chance but that those males which are best able by their various charms to please or excite the female are under ordinary circumstances accepted. If

2. The

3. A natural or even occasional preference by the female of the more attractive males would almost certainly lead to their modification and such modifications might in the course of time be augmented to almost any extent compatible with the existence of the species.

4. The fact that domesticated birds have varied greatly their variations being inherited is certain. That birds in a state of nature have been modified into distinct races is now universally admitted.²² Variations may be divided into two classes those which appear to our ignorance to arise spontaneously and those which are directly related to the surrounding conditions so that all or nearly all the individuals of the same species are similarly modified. Cases of the latter kind have recently

²² According to Dr Blas (Blas 1860 p. 207) there are 425 distinct breeds of fowls which breed in Europe besides many others. A frequently registered breed of the latter class is the black and white.

²³ Quoted in Lilljeborg's *G. m. B. de f. Sweden*, p. 31.

BIRDS

CHAP XIV

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Spanish cock and a sil e spangled P lish hen
the haft, tog th r with a narrow space on
each side, was greenish-black, and this was
u u ded by a regular zone of da k brown
edged with brownish white. In these case we
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w l h g e so much elegance to the plumage of
many natural peci s. I ha lso n ticed a
vari ty of th comm n p geon with th wing
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shad nst ad of b g mply black on a
slaty bl e gro nd as in the parent speci s.
In many gro ps of bird the plum ge is
diffe t th sev ral species, yet
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th p geon, —
bars, tho gh th y may be col red red yellow
whit black, blu th e t of th plumage
b ng f some wh lly different tint. Here i a
m e n cas in which certain m rks are
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minal hal f th t w b of the tw o t r
tail feath rs wh te now th is a sub-ariety
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re greenish black, excepting towards th ir
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between th wht extremities nd th black

ne rock b tt rfly (Vanessa) Mr Trum n has

—
"Bechstein, *Nat geschichte Deutschlands*, B
179 a. 31, sub-ariety f th m ncl
p geon.

this is now known to be an error.⁴⁰ This case seems analogous to that lately given of albino birds not pairing from being rejected by their comrades.

In various parts of the northern seas a remarkable variety of

is the surprising for variations which appear suddenly are often as I have elsewhere shewn⁴¹ transmitted either unaltered or not at all. We thus see that two distinct forms of the same species may co-exist in the same district and we cannot doubt that if the one had possessed any advantage over the other it would soon have been multiplied to the exclusion of the latter. If for instance the male pied ravens instead of being persecuted by their comrades had been highly attractive (like the above pied peacock) to the black female ravens their numbers would have rapidly increased. And this would have been a case of sexual selection.

With respect to the slight individual differences which are common in a greater or less degree to all the members of the same species we have every reason to believe that they are by far the most important for the work of selection. Secondary sexual characters are eminently liable to vary both with animal in a state of nature and under domestication.⁴² There is also reason to believe as we have seen in our eighth chapter that males are more

female characters thus

one sex or to both

⁴⁰ G. ba. T. g. b. h. R. ach. F. 1830 ss. 51-53
M. eg. B. 3. Hist. y. f. B. L. h. B. ds. v. l. p.
745. 16. L. v. 1863 p. 469

⁴¹ Gr. ba. Ind. a. 54. M. g. l. h. ray. b. d. v. l.

p. 32
⁴² J. ar. t. n. f. in. m. l. nd. H. ds. nder. D. m. st.

cat. L. 11 p. 9

On these points see also L. t. n. f. t. m. l. nd.
Plant. under Dom. st. ation. v. l. p. 23. L. 1.
pp. 3. 5.

sexes depends as we shall see in the following chapter on the form of inheritance which prevails.

It is sometimes difficult to form an opinion whether certain slight differences between the sexes of birds are simply the result of variability with sexually limited inheritance without the aid of sexual selection or whether they have been augmented through this latter process. I do not here refer to the many instances where the male displays splendid colours or other ornaments of which the female partakes to a slight degree for these are almost certainly due to characters primarily acquired by the male having been more or less transferred to the female. But what are we to conclude with respect to certain birds in which for instance the eyes differ slightly in colour in the two sexes? In some cases the eyes differ conspicuously thus with the storks of the genus *Xenorhynchus* those of the male are blackish hazel whilst those of the females are gamboge yellow with many hornbills (*Buceros*) and I hear from Mr. Blith⁴³ the males have intense crimson eyes and those of the females are white. In the *Buceros bicornis* the hind margin of the casque and a stripe on the crest of the beak are black in the male but not so in the female. Are we to suppose that these black marks and the crimson colour of the eyes have been preserved or augmented through sexual selection in the males? This is very doubtful for Mr. Bartlett shewed me in the Zool. garden at Carden that in the side of the mouth of the *Bucero* is black in the male and the black-colour in the female and their external appearance & beauty would not be thus affected. I observed in Chul that the iris in the concolor is

also a small longitudinal line in the iris

to think of the full-coloured comb of the condor which does not appear to us in the least ornamental. The same question may be asked in regard to various other characters, such as the knob on the base of the bill of the

⁴³ See L. t. n. f. t. m. l. nd. H. ds. nder. D. m. st.
G. B. R. L. 1860 p. 206 d. d.
1863 p. 46

⁴⁴ See L. t. n. f. t. m. l. nd. H. ds. nder. D. m. st.

⁴⁵ Zool. gy. f. the L. t. n. f. t. m. l. nd. H. ds. nder. D. m. st.
p. 6

sists of a black centre including a semi transparent crescent shaped mark surrounded by iridescent ochre yellow black ochre yellow

large ocelli (*B*¹)⁴⁸ In cases like these the development of a perfect ocellus does not require a long course of variation and selection

With birds and many other animals, it seems to follow from the comparison of allied species that circular spots are often generated by the breaking up and contraction of stripes. In the tragopan pheasant faint white lines in the female represent the beautiful white spots in the male and something of the same kind may be observed in the two sexes of the Argus pheasant. However this may be appearances

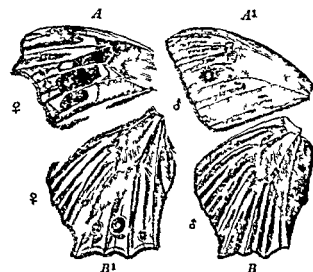


FIG. 53. *Cyllote leda*, Linn. from a drawing by Mr. Trimen showing the extreme age of variation in the ocelli.

from Mauritius, upper surface of fore-

first called my attention to this subject shewed me a series of specimens of our common meadow brown butterfly (*Hipparchia janira*) exhibiting numerous gradations from a simple minute black spot to an elegantly shaded ocellus. In a *S. African* butterfly (*Cyllote leda* Linn.) belonging to the same family the ocelli are even still more variable. In some specimens (*A* fig. 53) large spaces on the upper surface of the wings are coloured black and include irregular white marks and from this state a complete gradation can be traced into a tolerably perfect ocellus (*A*¹) and this results from the contraction of the irregular blotches of colour. In another series of specimens a gradation can be followed from excessively minute white dots, surrounded by a scarcely visible black line (*B*) into perfectly symmetrical and

that point towards

latter is thus rendered lighter and on the other hand that a white spot is often formed by the colour being driven away from a central point so that it accumulates in a surrounding darker zone. In either case an ocellus is the result. The colouring matter seems to be a nearly constant quantity but is redistributed either centripetally or centrifugally. The feathers of the common guinea fowl offer a good instance of white spots surrounded by darker zones and wherever the white spots are large and stand near each other the surrounding dark zones become confluent. In the same wing feather of the Argus pheasant dark spots may be seen surrounded by a pale zone and white spots by a dark zone. Thus the formation of an ocellus in its most elementary state appears to be a simple affair. By what further steps the more complex ocelli which are surrounded by many successive zones of colour have been generated I will not pretend to say. But the zoned feathers of the mongrels from differently coloured fowls, and the extraordinary variability of the ocelli on

I conclude lead us to conclude that

Gradation of Secondary Sexual Characters
Cases of gradation are important as shewing us that

acquired

discover the actual

"This woodcut has been graduated from beautiful drawing most kindly made for me by Mr. Trimen. See also his description of the dorsal and ventral of the butterfly in his *Rhopala* of Africa, p. 166.

Jerdon, *Birds of India*, vol. iii, p. 517

BIRDS

CRAP XIV

each tail-covert, though till plainly betraying its double origin. The confluent ocelli diffuse from the single ocelli of the peacock in having an indentation at both ends, instead of only at the lower or basal end. The explanation, however, of this difference is not difficult in some species of *Polyplectron* the two ocelli on the same feather stand parallel to each other in the species (as in *Ichthyaetus*) they converge towards and with the partial confluence of two confluent ocelli would manifestly be a much deeper indentation than the distance between the confluent ones. It also manifests that if the convergence were strongly pronounced and the confluence complete, the indentation with the convergent end would tend to disappear.

The following both peacock feathers

peacock, with his enormous elongated tail coverts, ornamented with short tail coverts, merely spotted with some colour we shall see bird allied to *Polyplectron*—that is, with tail-coverts capable of erect on and expansion ornamented with two partially confluent ocelli and long enough almost to conceal the feathers, the latter having already partially lost their ocelli. The indentation of the central disc and of the surrounding zone of the ocellus, in both species of peacock, is plainly manifest. The males of *Polyplectron* are no doubt beautiful birds, but their beauty when viewed from a little distance cannot be compared with that of the peacock. Many of the most prominent of the peacock must during a long line of descent, I am prepared thus superiority of the haughty consciousness by the continued preference for them to be the most beautiful males, and the peacock the most splendid of living birds.

respect the dual renial...
[Polyplectron which in most of the

of the phallos—Anthrax cell in case of the phallos is fixed by the ocellus in the wing feathers of the Argus phallos, which are shaded in so wonderful manner as to resemble the loose within sockets, and consequently

be so. The central tail feathers of *P. napoleo* are haughty two ocelli on each side of the shaft perfectly developed but the inner ocellus becomes less and less conspicuous in the more exterior tail-feathers, until in the shaded rudimental shaft the inner side feathers are most frequent. Again, in *P. malaccensis* the ocelli of the tail-coverts are as we have seen, confluent and these feathers are of unusual length, being two-thirds of the length of the tail-feathers, so that in both these respects they approach the tail-coverts of the peacock. Now in *P. malaccensis* the two central tail feathers also are ornamented with two bright coloured ocelli, the inner ocellus however being completely disappeared from all the other tail-feathers. Consequently the tail-coverts and tail-feathers of these species of *Polyplectron* may be approached in structure and ornamentation to the corresponding feathers of the peacock.

As far as the gradation throw light the steps by which the magnificent train of the peacock has been acquired hardly anything more is needed. If we picture to ourselves a progeny of the peacock in an almost exactly intermediate condition between the existing

has a chance—to the first of the concolorate feathers of coloring matter. That the ornamentation should have been formed through the selection of many successive artists, not of which was originally intended to produce the ball and socket effect, seems as incredible as that of Raphael. Madonnas should have been formed by the selection of chance of the paint made by a long succession of young artists, not of which was intended the first time with the human figure. In order to discover how the ocellus has been developed we cannot look to a long list of progenitors, but to many closely allied forms, which do not now exist. But first naturally the several feathers in the wing office to give a clear solution of the problem and the proportion to demonstrate the gradation in the last possible from the most to a finished ball-and-socket ocellus.

The wing feathers, between the ocelli are colored with dark stripes (fig. 57) with row of dark spots (fig. 59) each stripe row of spots running obliquely down the side of the shaft to the ocelli. The spots are

they seem to deserve particular attention as probably connected with the development of the ocellus but for a long time I could not conjecture their meaning.

If we admit the principle of gradual evolution there must formerly have existed many species which presented every successive step between the wonderfully elongated tail coverts of the peacock and the short tail coverts of all ordinary birds and again between the magnificent ocelli of the former and the simpler ocelli or mere coloured spots on other birds and so with all the other characters of the peacock. Let us look to the allied *Gallinaceæ* for any still existing gradations. The species and subspecies of *Polyplectron* inhabit countries adjacent to the native land of the peacock and they so far resemble this bird that they are sometimes called peacock pheasants. I am also informed by Mr Bartlett that they resemble the peacock in their voice and in some of their habits. During the spring the males as previously described strut about before the comparatively plain coloured females expanding and erecting their tail and wing feathers, which are ornamented with numerous ocelli. I request the reader to turn back to the drawing (fig 51 p 472) of a *Polyplectron In P napoleonis* the ocelli are confined to the tail and the back is of a rich metallic blue in which respects this species approaches the Java peacock. *P hardwickii* possesses a peculiar top-knot which is also somewhat like that of the Java peacock. In all species the ocelli on the wings and tail are either circular or oval and consist of a beautiful iridescent greenish blue or greenish purple disc with a black border. This border in *P chinquis* shades into brown edged with cream colour so that the ocellus is here surrounded with variously shaded though not bright concentric zones. The unusual length of the tail-coverts is another remarkable character in *Polyplectron* for in some of the species they are half and in others two-thirds as long as the true tail feathers. The tail-coverts are ocellated as in the peacock. Thus the several species of *Polyplectron* manifestly make a graduated approach to the peacock in the length of their tail-coverts in the zoning of the ocelli and in some other characters.

Notwithstanding this approach the first species of *Polyplectron* which I examined at most made me give up the search for I found not only that the true tail feathers which in the peacock are quite plain were ornamented

with ocelli but that the ocelli on all the feathers differed fundamentally from those of the peacock in there being two on the same feather (fig 5) one on each side of the shaft.



FIG 55 Part of a tail covert of *Polyplectron chinquis* with the two ocelli in natural size.

Hence I concluded that the early progenitors of the peacock could not have resembled a *Polyplectron*. But on continuing my search I observed that in some of the species the two ocelli stood very near each other that in the tail feathers of *P hardwickii* they touched each other and finally that on the tail-coverts of this same species as well as of *P malaccense* (fig 56) they were actually confluent. As the



FIG 56 Part of a tail covert of *Polyplectron malaccense* with the two ocelli actually confluent. 1 natural size.

central part alone is confluent an indentation is left at both the upper and lower ends and the surrounding coloured zones are likewise indented. A single ocellus is thus formed on



FIG. 53. Basal part of the secondary wing-feather nearest to the body.

described basal spots, together with the next higher one in the same row to a curious ornament, which cannot be called an ocellus, and which I will name from the want of better term, an *elliptic ornament*. These are shown in the accompanying figure (fig. 59).

We here see several oblique rows *A B C D &c.* (see the left red diagram on the right hand) of dark spots of the usual character. Each row of spots runs down to and is connected with one of the *elliptic ornaments*, in exactly the same manner as each stripe in fig. 50 runs down to, and is connected with, one of the ball-and-socket ocelli. Looking then on row for instance *P* in fig. 59 the lowest mark (*b*) is thicker and considerably longer than the proper spots, and has its left extremity pointed and curved upwards. This black mark is brightly bordered on its upper side by a rather broad space of rich leaden tints, beginning the narrow brown zone which passes to orange and thus into pale leaden tint, with the end towards the shaft much paler. These shaded tints together fill up the whole inner space of the *elliptic ornament*. The mark (*b*) corresponds in every respect with the basal shaded spot of the simple feather described in the last paragraph (fig. 55); but it is more highly developed and more brightly

coloured. Above and to the right of this spot (*b* 6 59) with its light shading, there is a long narrow black mark (*c*) belonging to the same row and which reached a little downwards so as to face (*b*). This mark is somewhat broken into two portions. It is also narrowed in the lower end with a fulvous tint. To the left of and below (*c*) the same oblique direction, but always more or less distinct from it, there is another black mark (*d*). This mark is generally sub-triangular and irregular in shape but in the one left red in the diagram it is unusually narrow, elongated, and regular. It appears to consist of lateral and broken prolongation of the mark (*c*) together with its connection with a broken and prolonged part of the next spot below (*b*). I do not feel sure of this. These three marks, *b* and *d* with the intervening bright shades, form together the so-called *elliptic ornament*. These ornaments placed parallel to the shaft, manifestly correspond in position with the ball-and-socket ocelli. Their tremulous appearance cannot be appreciated in the drawing, as the orange and leaden tints, contrasting so well with the black marks, cannot be shown.

Between one of the *elliptic ornaments* and a

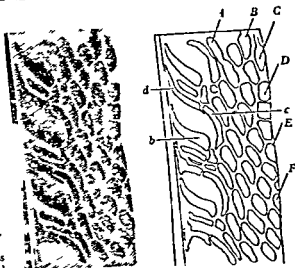


FIG. 59. Portion of one of the secondary wing-feathers near the body showing the so-called *elliptic ornaments*. The right hand figure is given merely as diagram for the sake of the letters of reference.

A B C D &c. Rows of spots running down to and forming the *elliptic ornaments*. *b* Lowest spot or mark in row *B*. *c* The next succeeding spot or mark in the same row *d*. Apparently broken prolongation of the spot *c* in the same row *B*.

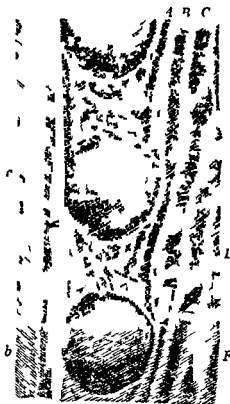


FIG 57 Part of secondary wing feather of Argus plumed showing two perfect ocelli

to the left of the shaft has been cut off]

generally elongated in a line transverse to the row in which they stand. They often become confluent either in the line of the row—and then they form a longitudinal stripe—or transversely that is with the spots in the adjoining rows and then they form transverse stripes. A spot sometimes breaks up into smaller spots which still stand in their proper places.

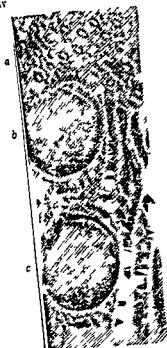
It will be convenient first to describe a perfect ball and socket ocellus. This consists of an intensely black circular ring surrounding a space shaded so as exactly to resemble a ball. The figure here given has been admirably drawn by Mr Ford and well engraved but a woodcut cannot exhibit the exquisite shading of the original. The ring is almost always slightly broken or interrupted (see fig. 7) at a point in the upper half a little to the right of and above the white shade on the enclosed ball. It is also sometimes broken towards the base on the right hand. These little breaks have an important meaning. The ring is always much thickened with the edges ill

defined towards the left hand upper corner the feather being held erect in the position in which it is here drawn. Beneath this thickened part there is on the surface of the ball an oblique almost pure white mark, which shades off downwards into a pale leaden hue and thus into yellowish and brown tints, which insensibly become darker and darker towards the lower part of the ball. It is this shading which gives so admirably the effect of light shining on a convex surface. If one of the balls be examined it will be seen that the lower part is of a brown tint and is indistinctly separated by a curved oblique line from the upper part which is yellower and more leaden. This curved oblique line runs at right angles to the

woodcut does not in the least interfere with the perfect shading of the ball. It should be particularly observed that each ocellus stands in obvious connection either with a dark stripe or with a longitudinal row of dark spots for both occur indifferently on the same feather. Thus in fig. 57 stripe A runs to ocellus A B runs to ocellus B stripe C is broken in the upper part and runs down to the next succeeding ocellus not represented in the woodcut D to the next lower one and so with the stripes E and F. Lastly the several ocelli are separated from each other by a pale surface bearing irregular black marks.

I will next describe the other extreme of the series namely the first trace of an ocellus. The short secondary wing feather (fig. 58) nearest to the body is marked like the other feathers with oblique longitudinal rather irregular rows of very dark spots. The basal spot or that nearest the shaft in the five lower rows (excluding the lowest one) is a little larger than the other spots of the same row and a little more elongated in a transverse direction. It differs also from the other spots by being bordered on its upper side with some full fulvous shading. But this spot is not in any way more remarkable than those on the plum

ing wing feathers an absolutely insensible gradation can be traced from one of the last



F 61 P r u e a m m t f f th
secondary g f th r s, bear g p feet ball
d l t o c l h.
a O nam ted ppe p r t b l p p most.
m p r e c t b l l d sock t o c l u s. (Th
had g b o th h t m k th sum
m t f th o c l u s h l t l t o o d k.)
c. P r e c t o c l u s

From t h a b o e f t h p p e and t h k e d
part f t l r i th p p e m t o c e l l s, t l g h
l r e s p e c t s. p p e a s f t s

l p e f t t h a n t h t h f t l s, and

are t l c o t a r f t e b r o k p i n t o
m a l l p e t s, s o t h t t w t h r e e r o w r u n
d w t t h s a m o c l l

T l t u l l r e m a i n a n t h r y c u r i u s
p o t, f i r t b s e r v e d b y M r T W W o o d

wh h

g e n n

a s n t h

the f a t h s w i c l a b l d p r p e

th l t e m a k s n the o c e l l i r e p r e n t n g

l i g h t r e f l e c t e d f r o m a c o n x u r f a c e a r e a t t l

u p p e r f t l e r n d t l a t s, r d i c e t l

u p w a r d a n d t h b r d w h l s t d s p l a y n g b i m

s e l f n t h e g o u n d w u l d n t u a l l y b e l l u m i

n a t e d f r o m b o e B u t h e c o m t l r i o u s

p o t t l t e r f a t h s a r e h e l d a l m t h r i

z o

a p

s e q

o n t h e p p e d e s o f t h e o c

a s s t h f a c t, t h e y a r e t h u s p l a c d H e n c e t h

o c e l l n t h e s e r l f e t h r s t h u g h o c c u p y

i n g e r y d f f r e t p o t i s w i l l r e p e c t t o t h e

l i g h t, l l p p e a r a s f l l u m i t e d f o m a b e

j u t a s a n t t w u l d h l a d e d t l m

N e r t h l s s t e y a r n t l l m t e d f r o m

t r i t l y t h s a m e p o n t a s t h e y o g h t t o b f

t h w h i t m r k s n t h o c e l l i o f t h e f a t h r s

w h c h b l d a l m t l r i o n t a l l y p l a c e d

t h t o o m c h t w d s t h e f u r t h n d t l t

t h y a r n t u f f i n t l y l a t e l W e h a e

h w n o r g h t t o x p e t b s o l t p r e c t i n

n a p t e n d e d n a m t a l t h r u g l u a l

s e l e c t a n y m t h a n w h a n a p a r t

n o d f i e d t h g h n a t u a l s e l e c t n f l u s e

f f n t a n c e t h a t w n d r o o g n t h l u

l d w k w w h a t l l m h l t z t h e

all above

m t l

t f l l e d f m m p l p o t s t o t h w
f l b l l a n d o c k e t r n m n t s M G l d
w h l d l v g e m s o m f t h e f t l
f l l y a g r e e w t h m i n t h m p l t n e s s f t l
g a d t o n l t b s t h t h t a g i n
d l p m n t e x l b t e d b y t l e f e a t h r s n t h e
s a m b r d d n t t l l n e c e s a r l y s h w u s t h
t p p a s s e d t l r o g h b y t h x t n t p g n i
t o f t h p e c b t t h p r o b l y g e u
t h l t t h a c t l t p a n d t h y a t l a s t
p t o d m n s t t n t h t a g a d t i s
p o b l B a r n g m n d b w a r f u l l y t h e
m a l A g p l a s a n t d i s p l y h i s p l u m b
f t l f m a l a s w i l l a s t h e m a n y f t s
d g t p b l b l t h t f m a l b d p f

Th F l d M y 28, 1870

"P p u l a L e c t S c i n f i c S u b j e c t E g

t n s. 1873 pp 219 227 269 300

perfect ball and socket ocellus the gradation is so perfect that it is scarcely possible to decide when the latter term ought to be used. The passage from the one into the other is effected by the elongation and greater curvature in opposite directions of the lower black mark (*b* fig 59) and more especially of the upper one (*c*) together with the contraction of the elongated sub triangular or narrow mark (*d*) so that at last these three marks become confluent forming an irregular elliptic ring. This ring is gradually rendered more and more circular and regular increasing at the same time in diameter. I have here given a drawing (fig 60) of the natural size of an ocellus not as



FIG 60 An ocellus in an intermediate condition between the elliptic ornament and the perfect ball and socket ocellus

yet quite perfect. The lower part of the black ring is much more curved than is the lower mark in the elliptic ornament (*b* fig 59). The upper part of the ring consists of two or three separate portions and there is only a trace of the thickening of the portion which forms the black mark above the white shade. This white shade is a little

or four elongated black marks by which the ring has been formed may often be detected. The irregular sub triangular or narrow mark (*d* fig 59) manifestly forms by its contraction and equalisation the thickened portion of the ring above the white shade on a perfect ball and socket ocellus. The lower part of the ring is invariably a little thicker than

the other parts (see fig 57) and this follows from the lower black mark of the elliptic ornament (*b* fig 59) having originally been thicker than the upper mark (*c*). Every step can be followed in the process of confluence and modification and the black ring which surrounds the ball of the ocellus is unquestionably formed by the union and modification of the three black marks *b c d* of the elliptic ornament. The irregular zigzag black marks between the successive ocelli (see again fig 57) are plainly due to the breaking up of the somewhat more regular but similar marks between the elliptic ornaments.

The successive steps in the shading of the ball and socket ocelli can be followed out with equal clearness. The brown orange and pale leached narrow zones which border the lower black mark of the elliptic ornament can be seen gradually to become more and more solid and shaded into each other with the upper lighter part towards the left hand corner rendered still lighter so as to become almost white and at the same time more contracted. But even in the most perfect ball and socket ocelli a slight difference in the tints though not in the shading between the upper and lower parts of the ball can be perceived as before noticed and the line of separation is oblique in the same direction as the bright coloured shades of the elliptic ornaments. Thus almost every minute detail in the shape and colouring of the ball and socket ocelli can be shown to follow from gradual changes in the elliptic ornaments and the development of the latter can be traced by equally small steps from the union of two almost simple spots the lower one (fig 8) having some dull fulvous shading on its upper side.

The extremities of the secondary and socket ocelli (fig 61) The cease upwards and become confused and above this limit the whole upper end of the feather (*a*) is covered with white dots surrounded by little black rings standing on a dark ground. The oblique stripe belonging to the uppermost ocellus (*b*) is barely represented by a very short irregular black mark with the usual curved transverse base. As this stripe is thus abruptly cut off we can perhaps understand from what has gone before how it is that the upper thickened part of the ring is here absent for as before stated this thickened part apparently stands in some relation with a

performers but whether the most beautiful or the most pugnacious was the accepted suitor I know not. Mr Gould, after describing the peculiar plumage of the Trochilus adds, "this ornament and ornament is the sole object I have seen it fitted to." "If this be admitted

Introduction to the Trochilidae 1861 p. 110.

we can perceive that the males which during former times were decked in the most elegant and noble manner would have gained an advantage not in the ordinary struggle for life but in rivalry with other males, and would have had a large number of offspring to inherit their newly acquired beauty.

the more attractive males no one who admits the agency of sexual selection in any case will deny that a simple dark spot with some fulvous shading might be converted through the approximation and modification of two adjoining spots together with some slight increase of colour into one of the so called elliptic ornaments. These latter ornaments have been shewn to many persons and all have admitted that they are beautiful some thinking them even more so than the ball and socket ocelli. As the secondary plumes became lengthened through sexual selection and as the elliptic ornaments increased in diameter their colours apparently became less bright and then the ornamentation of the plumes had to be gained by an improvement in the pattern and shading and this process was carried on until the wonderful ball and socket ocelli were finally developed. Thus we can understand—and in no other way as it seems to me—the present condition and origin of the ornaments on the wing feather of the Argus pheasant.

From the light afforded by the principle of gradation—from what

of the immature plumage of young bird—we can sometimes indicate with a certain amount of confidence the probable steps by which the males have acquired their brilliant plumage and various ornaments yet in many cases we are involved in complete darkness. Mr Gould several years ago pointed out to me a humming bird the *Erodiobates* remarkable for the curious differences between the sexes. The male besides a splendid gorget has greenish black tail feather with the four central ones tipped with white in the female as with most of the allied species the three outer tail feathers on each side are tipped with white so that the male has the four central whilst the female has the six exterior feathers ornamented with white tips. What makes the case

Mr Gould does not know a single species besides the *Erodiobates* in which the male has the four central feathers tipped with white.

The Duke of Argyll in commenting on this case passes over sexual selection and asks

"The Reg. of Law 1867 p 217

What explanation does the law of natural selection give of such cases as

the one species alone so as to have acquired white tips. The variations may have been gradual or somewhat abrupt as in the case recently given of the humming birds near Bogota in which certain individuals alone have the central tail feathers tipped with beautiful green. In the female of the *Erodiobates* I noticed extremely minute (or rudimentary) white tips to the two outer of the four central black tail feathers so that

the white ear tuft certainly adds to the beauty of the male and what is apparently appreciated by other birds as may be inferred from such cases as the snow white male of the bell bird. The statement made by Sir R. Heron should not be forgotten namely that his peacock when debarré from access to the pied peacock would not unite with

the *Erodiobates* which will have been specially selected for the sake of ornament for the next succeeding genus in the family takes its name of *Metallura* from the splendour of these feathers. We have moreover good evidence that humming birds take special pains in displaying their tail feathers. Mr Belt after describing the beauty of the *Elanoides forsteri* says "I have seen the female sit upon a branch and so manifestly playing their ear in front of her. One would look up like a rocket then suddenly expanding the white tail like an inverted parachute which descends in front of her turning round fully to show off black and front. It expanded with tail covering more part of the rest of the bird and was evidently the graceful figure in the performance. With one male was I seen looking at other (all looking at) come slowly down expanded till entering into would enter in a flight to meet the two

"The Nat. and N. Am. Geo., 1871 p. 112.

there can be no doubt that the male hybrid offspring would have a much longer tail than that of the pure offspring of the common pheasant. On the other hand, if the female common pheasant, with a tail much longer than that of the female Scammerring pheasant were crossed with the male of the latter the male hybrid offspring would have a much shorter tail than that of the pure offspring of the common pheasant.

Our failure in order to make his new breed with the males of a pale blue tint, and the females unchanged would have to cost selecting the males during many generations and each variety of paleness would have to be fixed in the males, and rendered latent in the females. The task would be an extremely difficult one and has never been tried, but might possibly be successfully carried out. The chief obstacle would be the total and complete loss of the pale blue tint from the necessity of interbred crosses with the latent male the latter not having at first any latent tendency to produce pale blue offspring.

grandfather the young female alone being silver. No doubt with patience this tendency to reversion in the males, reared from an occasional silver male matched with a silver hen might be eliminated and then both sexes would be color alike and this very process has been followed with success by Mr Esquilant in the case of silver turkeys.

With fowls, variations of colour limited in their transmission to the male sex, habitually occur. When thus the form of inheritance prevails, it might well happen that some of the necessary variations would be transferred to the female who would then slightly resemble the male as actually occurs in some breeds. Or again, the greater number but not all, of the necessary properties might be transferred to both sexes, and the female would then closely resemble the male. There can hardly be doubt that the total case of the male postage can have a somewhat large crop, and if the

female had no wish that the character should be more retrogradely displayed in the male than in the female at this time the case with both breeds.

The same process would have to be followed and the same difficulties encountered, if it were desired to make a breed with the females also of some new color.

Later fanciers might wish to make a breed with the two sexes differing from each other and both from the parent species. It is rather difficult would be to obtain unless the successive variations were from the first sex all limited on both sides, and then the reverse would be difficult. We see this with the fowl thus the two sexes of the pencilled Hambrogh differ entirely from each other and from the two sexes of the aboriginal *Gallus bank* and both are new kept constant to their standard of excellence by continued selection, which would be impossible unless the distinctive characters of both were limited in their transmission.

The paired fowl offers a more curious case. The male has an immense comb but some of the necessary variations, by the accumulation of such was acquired appear to have been transferred to the female for she has a comb many times larger than that of the male of the parent species. But the comb of the female differs in respect from that of the male in its position and within a recent period

mission to the male sex, the task of making a new breed of the desired kind would be as for such males would simply have to be selected and matched with ordinary females. An analogous case has actually occurred, if there are breeds of the pigeon in Belgium in which the male alone are marked with blue stripes. Van M. T. G. has recently shown that dragons not rarely produce colored birds, which are almost always and he himself has bred in such fowls. It is on the other hand a very unusual thing that a female is produced so that nothing could be easier if desired, than to make a breed of dragons with blue males and all females. This tendency is indeed so strong, that when Mr Tenison last got a silver male and matched him with one of the silver females, he expected to get a breed with both sexes thus coloured but was how disappointed, if the young male reverted to the blue colour of his

*Temple says that the tail of the female Phasianus is 11 inches long. The measurement of 1833, pp. 4 and 5, the measurement is also given for the male. Mr. Slater for the common pheasant, see Macgillivray's History of British Birds, vol. 1, pp. 115-116.

Dr. Chapuis, Le Pigeon, 1863, p. 8.

*The Field, Sept. 15, 2.

CHAPTER XV

BIRDS—Continued

WE have in this chapter to consider why the females of many birds have not acquired the same ornaments as the male and why, on the other hand, both sexes of many other birds are equally or almost equally ornamented? In the following chapter we shall consider the few cases in which the female is more conspicuously coloured than the male.

In my *Origin of Species*¹ I briefly suggested that the long tail of the peacock would be in convenient and the conspicuous black colour of the male capercaillie dangerous to the female during the period of incubation and consequently that the transmission of the characters from the male to the female

females retained their former slaty tint as with pigeons characters of all kinds are usually transmitted to both sexes equally the fancier would have to try to convert this latter form of inheritance into sexually limited transmission. All that he could do would be to persevere in selecting every male pigeon which was in the least degree of a paler blue and the natural result of this process if steadily carried on for a long time and if the pale variations were strongly inherited or often recurred would be to make his whole stock of

variances but after mature reflection on all the facts

transmission from the first limited in their transmission to the same sex in which they first arose. Since my remarks appeared the subject of sexual colouration has been discussed in some very interesting papers by Mr Wallace who believes that in almost all cases the successive variations tended at first to be transmitted equally to both sexes but that the female was saved through natural selection from acquiring the conspicuous colours of the male owing to the danger which she would thus have incurred during incubation.

This view necessitates a tedious discussion on a difficult point namely whether the transmission of a character which is at first inherited by both sexes can be subsequently limited in its transmission to one sex alone by means of natural selection. We must bear in mind as shown in the preliminary chapter on sexual selection that characters which are limited in their development to one sex are always latent in the other. An imaginary illustration will best aid us in seeing the difficulty of the case. We may suppose that a fancier wished to make a breed of pigeon in which the males alone should be coloured of a pale blue whilst the

loss of the pale blue tint for the primordial slaty colour would be transmitted with prepotent force. Supposing however that some pale blue males and slaty females were produced during each successive generation and were always crossed together then the slaty females would have if I may use the expression much blue blood in their veins for their father grandfathers &c. will all have been blue birds. Under these circumstances it is conceivable (though I know of no direct facts rendering it probable) that

their male offspring the female offspring still inheriting the slaty tint. If so the desired end of making a breed with the two sexes permanently different in colour might be gained.

The extreme improbability or rather necessity in the above case of the desired character namely paler blue being present though in a latent state in the female so that the male offspring will not be deteriorated will be best appreciated as follows. The male Pouter has a tail thirty-seven inches in length whilst that of the female is only eight inches. The tail of the male common Pouter is about twenty inches and that of the female twelve inches long. Now if the female Pouter and the male common Pouter were crossed with the male common Pouter

¹ Edited in 1866 p. 211.
If in later editions p. 156. J. nat. f.
Tr. vol. 2, 1868, p. 3.

size has been modified by sexual selection, the females having been left unchanged, or only partially and indirectly thus changed. Whether the females have been specially modified through natural selection for the sake of protection, I will therefore discuss this question at some length, as more full than its intrinsic importance deserves. Various curious collateral points may thus be conveniently considered.

Before we enter on the subject of colour more especially in reference to Mr Wallace's conclusions, it may be useful to discuss some other sexual differences under a similar point of view. A breed of fowls formerly existed in Germany⁴ in which the hens were furnished

4

probably that with the females the wild Gallinæ the development of spurs had been checked through natural selection, from the spurs being carried to their nests. This seemed all the more probable as wing spurs, which could not be injurious during incubation, are often as well developed in the female as in the male, though in not a few cases they are rather larger in the male. While the male is furnished with leg-spurs the female almost always has rudiments of them,—the rudiment

tance having prevailed independently of natural selection. With the many females in which spurs appear as rudiments, we may conclude that some females of the various species, through which they were developed in the males, occurred very early in life, and were consequently transferred to the females. In the other and much rarer cases, in which the females possess fully developed spurs, we may conclude that all the successive variations were transferred to them and that they gradually acquired and inherited the habit of not disturbing their nests.

The vocal organs and the females variously modified for producing sound as well as the proper instincts of using them often differ in the two sexes, but are sometimes the same in both. Can such differences be accounted for by the males having acquired these organs and instincts, whilst the females have been saved from inheriting them, on account of the danger to which the would have been exposed by attracting the attention of birds or beasts of prey? This does not seem to me probable, when we think of the multitude of birds which with impunity gladden the country with their songs during the spring. It is a safe conclusion that, as vocal and instrumental organs are of special service only to the males during their courtship, these organs were developed through sexual selection and their constant use in that sex alone,—the successive variations and the effects of use have been from the first more or less limited in transmission to the male offspring.

It frequently has been lost through disuse or natural selection. But if this view be admitted, it would have to be extended to many other similar cases and it implies that the female progenitors of the existing spur-bearing species were once encumbered with an injurious appendage.

In some few genera and species, as in Gallinæ, Accipitræ, and the Japanese peacock (*Pavo*), the females, as well as the males,

Many analogous cases could be adduced. Those of the difference of the plumage on the head being peculiarly longer in the male than in the female some times of equal length in both sexes, and occasionally absent in the female—these several cases occurring in the same group of birds. It would be difficult to account for such difference between the sexes by the female having been benefited by possessing a slightly shorter crest than the male, and its consequent diminution or complete suppression through natural selection. But I will take more favourable cases namely the length of the tail. The long train of the peacock would have been not only inconvenient but dangerous to the peahen during the period of incubation.

Daines Barrington, however, thought it probable (*Philosophical Transactions* 1773, p. 164) that few female birds sing because the talent would have been dangerous to them during incubation. He adds, that a similar view is very possible account for the inferiority of the female to the male in plumage.

perhaps so that the spurs have not been removed. Or are we to suppose that the females of these several species especially require spurs for their defence? It is more probable conclusion that both the presence and absence of spurs in the females result from different laws of inheritance.

⁴Erchler, *Vögelgeschichte Deutschlands* 1773, B. II. 329.

it has been ordered by the fancy that this should always be the case and success has quickly followed the order. Now the lopping of the comb must be sexually limited in its transmission otherwise it would prevent the

transmission of the

the male must likewise be a sexually limited character otherwise it would prevent the comb of the female from lopping over

From the foregoing illustrations we see that even with almost unlimited time at command it would be an extremely difficult and complex perhaps an impossible process to change one form of transmission into the other through selection. Therefore without distinct evidence in each case I am unwilling to admit that this has been effected in natural species. On the other hand by means of successive variation which were from the first sexually limited in their transmission there would not be the least difficulty in rendering a male bird widely different in colour or in any other character from the female the latter being left unaltered or slightly altered or specially modified for the sake of protection.

As bright colours are of service to the males in their rivalry with other males such colours would be selected whether or not they were transmitted exclusively to the same sex. Consequently the females might be expected often to partake of the brightness of the males to a greater or less degree and this occurs with a host of species. If all the successive variations were transmitted equally to both sexes the females would be indistinguishable from the males and this likewise occurs with many birds. If however dull colours were of high importance for the safety of the female during incubation as with many ground birds the females which varied in brightness or which received through inheritance from the males any marked accession of brightness would sooner or later be destroyed. But the tendency in the males to continue for an indefinite period transmitting to their female offspring their own brightness would have to be eliminated by a change in the form of inheritance and thus as shewn by our previous illustration would be extremely difficult. The more probable result of the long continued destruction of the more brightly-coloured females supposing the equal form of transmission to prevail would be the lessening or annihilation of the bright colours of the males owing to their con-

tinual crossing with the females. If the females were not eliminated yet they would not be favoured or selected for the male usually accepts any female and does not select the more attractive individuals consequently these variations would be liable to be lost and would have little influence on the character of the race and this will aid in accounting for the females being commonly duller coloured than the males.

In the eighth chapter instances were given to which many might here be added of variations occurring at various ages and inherited at the corresponding age. It was also shewn that variations which occur late in life are commonly transmitted to the same extent

limited transmission can thus be accounted for. It was further shewn that if a male bird varied by becoming brighter whilst young such variations would be of no service until the age for reproduction had arrived and there was competition between rival males. But in the case of birds living on the ground and commonly in need of the protection of dull colours bright tints would be far more dangerous to the young and inexperienced than to the

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natural selection on the other hand the males which varied in this manner when nearly mature notwithstanding that they were exposed to one additional danger might survive and from being favoured through sexual selection would procreate their kind. As a relation often exists between the period of variation and the form of transmission if the bright coloured young males were destroyed as the mature ones were successful in their courtship the males alone would acquire brilliant colours and would transmit them exclusively to their male offspring. But I by no means wish to maintain that the influence of age on the form of transmission is the sole cause of the great difference in brilliancy between the sexes of many birds.

When the sexes of birds differ in colour it is interesting to determine whether the males

BIRDS

Case x

Dr. Le of Argyll remarks that a large d med nest is more conspicu to an e my pecu- ally to all tree ha ting earn rous an mals, than malle pen et \ must we f g t it with m y brd whi h b ld pen n ts,

birds in th l ted St tes, th male being crimson, and th f male light brownish green. \ w if brilliant colo rs had been x tremely dangerous t bird whil t ting u their pe sts, th mal s in these cases wo ld ha suff red greatly It might, h we e b f such paramount importance to th mal to be brilliant colo red in rd t be t his ri als, that this ma ha m re than compensated som add tional dang

Mr Wallace admits that with th king cro (D crurus) ri les, and Pittidæ th f males are conspicu ly col red y t build pe sts b t h ges th t th birds f th first group are highly p gnac and could defend th msel es th t th se of the seco d group take e trem ar in co cealing th pe nests, b t this does t variab l ld good and that with th b d f th third group the f males are brightl col red in fly the und surface B des th se cases, p cious hich are som tim brightly and

xposed sts. In anoth larg family that f the humming-birds, all th peci build pen nests, y t th som f th most g geous species th sexes are alik and in th majority the f males, th gh less brilliant than th males, are brightl colo ed \ can t be maintained that all f mal h mm g birds, hich are brightl colo red sc pe d tect n by th ir tints be ng green, f som display n their ppe urfaces red bl and th colours."

Journal of T cl, ed ted by A. Murray l. l., 1864, p. 291

Audubon, Ornithological Biogr phy ol. p.

In regard to birds whi h b ld in hole o constru t d med n sts, the ad antages, as M Wallace remarks, bes d s concealment are gained u h as h l r from th aim, gre ter warmth and in h t countrie protecti n from the un so th t t is no al d object on to h us \ w th t many brds h ring both sex s ob- sc rely col red b ld concealed n ts " The femal h ru bill (B ceros) for instance of Ind a and Africa is protected d ring me ba th vtrnary care f r sh plast rs

h r h is th k pt a close prison d ring th whol period f incub t n v t f male l rn bills are not m re con p o ly colo red than many oth brds f eq al ze whi ch build open nests. It a m re serious bjection to M Wallace s w as is admitted by him that in som f w gro p th male are brill

se ral f the A tralian h uey suck rs or M l phagidæ "

If w look to the bird of England w shall see that th re is no close and g n ral rel t on between th colours f th f male and th n tur f th ne t whi ch is constructed \ bo t f rty f Brit h brd (e l ding those f larg siz whi h co ld d f nd th msel e) build n h les b ks, rocks, o trees, co struct d med n ts. If w tak th col rs f th f m l g l d f h bullfinch black brd as tandard f th d gree f consp e usness, which is n t l gh dang rous t th ting f mal th n t f th bo f rty brds the f m les f nly tw l an be cons d red as co p cu to dan ro d gree th remain consp cu us f males could be g n. See Mr G uld magnifice tw h this family

M Sal uced Goat mala (Ibis 1864 p. 3) that humm g-birds were m ch m unwilling t le e their est during ery h t w th whe th sun was hui g brightly as if their ggs would be thus jured tha dun g cool, cloudy

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the female *La pornia porphyronus* is blackish-green the ppe urface with the lores d sides of th throat crimson the female *Eul mna j gularis* has the top of the head d back green, b t th lons nd the tail are crimson. M y the instances of highly

363 333, 337 389 391 414

Mr C H rne, Proc Zool Soc., 1869 p. 243

O the ulicats d colours of these latter species, see G uld H ndbook f the B ds f Aust l. pp. 504 27

tion and whilst accompanying her young. Hence there is not the least *a priori* improbability in the development of her tail having been checked through natural selection. But the females of various pheasants which apparently are exposed on their open nests to as much danger as the peahen have tails of considerable length. The females as well as the males of the *Menura superba* have long tails and they build a domed nest which is a great anomaly in so large a bird. Naturalists have wondered how the female *Menura* could manage her tail during incubation but it is now known* that she enters the nest head first and then turns round with her tail sometimes over her back but more often bent round by her side. Thus in time the tail becomes quite askew and is a tolerable guide to the length of time the bird has been sitting. Both sexes of an Australian kingfisher (*Tanysticta sylvia*) have the middle tail feathers greatly lengthened and the female makes her nest in a hole and as I am informed by Mr. R. B. Sharpe these feathers become much crumpled during incubation.

In these two latter cases the great length of the tail feathers must be in some degree inconvenient to the female and as in both species the tail feathers of the female are somewhat shorter than those of the male it might be argued that their full development had been prevented through natural selection. But if the development of the tail of the peahen had been checked only when it became inconveniently or dangerously great she would have retained a much longer tail than she actually possesses for her tail is not nearly so long relatively to the size of her body as that of many female pheasants nor longer than that of the female turkey. It must also be borne in mind that in accordance with this view as soon as the tail of the peahen became dangerously long and its development was consequently checked she would have continually reacted on her male progeny and thus have prevented the peacock from acquiring his present magnificent train. We may therefore infer that the length of the tail in the peacock and its shortness in the peahen are the result of the requisite variations in the male having been from the first transmitted to the male offspring alone.

We are led to a nearly similar conclusion with respect to the length of the tail in the various species of pheasants. In the Eared pheasant (*Crossoptilon auritum*) the tail is of

Mr Ramsay in Proc. Zool. Soc. 1868, p. 50.

equal length in both sexes namely sixteen or seventeen inches in the common pheasant it is about twenty inches long in the male and twelve in the female in the Scampering pheasant, thirty seven inches in the male and only eight in the female and lastly in Reeve's pheasant it is sometimes actually seventy two inches long in the male and sixteen in the female. Thus in the several species the tail of the female differs much in length irrespectively of that of the male and this can be accounted

mission to the male sex than by the agency of natural selection resulting from the length of tail being more or less injurious to the females of these several allied species.

We may now consider Mr. Wallace's argu

ment that in all or almost all cases have been transmitted to the females unless the transference had been checked through natural selection. I may here remind the reader that various facts opposed to this view have already been given under reptiles, amphibians, fishes and lepidoptera. Mr. Wallace rests his

argument in a very conspicuous manner the nest is of such a nature as to conceal the sitting bird but when there is a marked contrast of colour between the sexes the male being gay and the female dull-coloured the nest is open and exposes the sitting bird to view. This coincidence as far as it goes, certainly seems to favour the belief that the females which sit on open nests have been specially modified for the sake of protection but we shall presently see that there is another and more probable explanation namely that conspicuous females have acquired the instinct of building domed nests oftener than dull-coloured birds. Mr. Wallace admits that there are as might have been expected some exceptions to his rules but it is a question whether the exceptions are not so numerous as seriously to invalidate them.

There is in the first place much truth in the *Journal of Travel*, edited by A. Murray vol. i. 1868, p. 8.

Mr. Wallace remarks that a large domed nest is more conspicuous to an enemy especially in the tree-topped country of the mountains, and is rather open nest. Nor must we forget that with many birds which build open nests, as the male on the eggs and also the female in front of the young, it is the case for instance with *Pyrrhuloxia* that one of the most conspicuous is in the United States, the male being reddish and the female light brownish-green. Nor if brilliant colours had been extremely common to birds whilst sitting on the eggs, the males in these cases would have secured great. It might, however, be of great practical importance to the male to be brightly coloured, in order to heat his mate, and his mate were more than compensated for actual danger.

Mr. Wallace admits that with the Kingbirds (*Merula*), crows, and Pigeons, the males are conspicuously coloured, yet build open nests; but he writes that the birds of the first group are high protection, and could often escape the male of the second group take extreme care in concealing their nests, but this does not invariably hold good and even with the birds of the third group the males are usually coloured, and sit on the nest surface. Besides these cases, there are which are sometimes brightly and conspicuously coloured, and which are notorious. Hence to the attacks of birds of prey, with a serious exception to the rule, or yet almost always build open and exposed nests. In answer to the fact that of the birds which all the species build open nests, yet with some of the most gorgeous species the sexes are alike, and in the majority the males, though less brilliant than the females, are brightly coloured. Nor can it be maintained that all female humming-birds which are brightly coloured, escape detection, but that being green, for some degree on their upper surfaces red, blue, and other colours.

Journal of Travel, edited by A. Murray, vol. 1, p. 104.

London, (Omniscient Books), 3, vol. 1, p. 104.

in the Birds of India, vol. 2, p. 110. Gould.

Essence of the Birds of Australia, vol. 1, p. 163.

The male, the female *Euphonia* warblers are the head and tail dark blue with reddish brown; the male *Leucophaea* perisoreus is blackish-green the upper surface, with the head and sides of the head crimson, the female *Euphonia* perisoreus has the tip of the head and back green, but the head and the sides are crimson. Many other instances of highly

In regard to birds which build in holes or construct domed nests, other advantages, as Mr. Wallace remarks, besides concealment are gained, such as the protection from rain, greater warmth, and in hot countries protection from the sun. "So that it is no valid objection to his view that many birds having both sexes obscurely coloured build concealed nests." The female horn-bird (*Buceros*) for instance of India and Africa is protected during incubation with extraordinary care for she fastens up with her own secretion the orifice of the hole in which she sits on her eggs, leaving only a small orifice through which the male feeds her—she is thus kept close prisoner during the whole period of incubation. "yet female horn-birds are not more conspicuously coloured than many other birds of equal size which build open nests. It is a more serious objection to Mr. Wallace's view as is admitted by him, that in some few groups the males are brown and coloured and the females obscure and at the latter hatch their eggs in domed nests. This is the case with the Grassquit of Australia, the superb warblers (*Alcedo*) of the same country, the *Nectarinia* (Nectarine) and with several of the Australian booby species or *M. asperatus*."

If we look to the birds of England we shall see that there is no close and general reason between the colours of the female and the nature of the nest which is constructed. About forty of our British birds (excluding those of large size which could defend themselves) build in holes in banks, rocks, or trees, or construct domed nests. If we take the colours of the female ground-sparrow, or black-bird, as a standard of the degree of conspicuousness, which is not highly dangerous to the sitting female, then out of the above forty birds the females of only twelve can be considered as conspicuous to a dangerous degree, the remaining conspicuous females could be given. See Mr. Gould's magnificent work on this family.

"Mr. Wilson noticed in Guatemala (Ibid. 1864 p. 5) that humming-birds were much more unwilling to leave their nests during very hot weather than the sun was shining brightly, as if their eggs would be thus more than during cool, cloudy weather."

I may specify as instances of dull-coloured birds building concealed nests, the species belonging to eight Australian genera described in Gould's *Handbook of the Birds of Australia*, vol. 1, pp. 342, 343, 344, 345, 346, 347, 348, 349, 350, 351, 352.

Mr. C. Horne, Proc. Zool. Soc. 1863, p. 213.

"On the pale-coloured and colours of these latter species, see Gould's *Handbook of the Birds of Australia*, vol. 1, pp. 342, 343, 344, 345, 346, 347, 348, 349, 350, 351, 352."

tion and whilst accompanying her young. Hence there is not the least *a priori* improbability in the development of her tail having been checked through natural selection. But the females of various pheasants which apparently are exposed on their open nests to as much danger as the peahen have tails of considerable length. The females as well as the males of the *Menura superba* have long tails, and they build a domed nest which is a great anomaly in so large a bird. Naturalists have wondered how the female *Menura* could manage her tail during incubation but it is now known* that she enters the nest head first and then turns round with her tail sometimes over her back but more often bent round by her side. Thus in time the tail becomes quite askew and is a tolerable guide to the length of time the bird has been sitting. Both sexes of an Australian Kingfisher (*Tanysiptera sylvia*) have the middle tail feathers greatly lengthened and the female makes her nest in a hole and as I am informed by Mr R. B. Sharpe these feathers become much crumpled during incubation.

In these two latter cases the great length of the tail feathers must be in some degree inconvenient to the female and as in both species the tail feathers of the female are somewhat shorter than those of the male it might be argued that their full development

dangerously great, she would have retained a much longer tail than she actually possesses for her tail is not nearly so long relatively to the size of her body as that of many female pheasants nor longer than that of the female turkey. It must also be borne in mind that in accordance with this view as soon as the tail of the peahen became dangerously long and its development was consequently checked she would have continually reacted on her male progeny and thus have prevented the peacock from acquiring his present magnificent train. We may therefore infer that the length of the tail in the peacock and its shortness in the peahen are the result of the requisite variations in the male having been from the first transmitted to the male offspring alone.

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Mr Ramsay in *Proc Zool Soc.* 1863, p. 50.

equal length in both sexes namely sixteen or seventeen inches in the common pheasant it is about twenty inches long in the male and twelve in the female in *Sommering's* pheasant thirty seven inches in the male and only eight in the female and lastly in *Reeve's* pheasant it is sometimes actually seventy two inches long in the male and sixteen in the female. Thus in the several species the tail of the female differs much in length irrespective of that of the male and thus can be accounted for as it seems to me with much more probability by the laws of inheritance—that is by the successive variations having been from the first more or less closely limited in their transmission to the male sex than by the agency of natural selection resulting from the length of tail being more or less injurious to the females of these several allied species.

We may now consider Mr Wallace's arguments in

males would in all or almost all cases, have been transmitted to the females unless the transference had been checked through natural selection. I may here remind the reader that various facts opposed to this view have already been given under reptiles, amphibians, fishes and lepidoptera. Mr Wallace rests his belief chiefly but not exclusively as we shall see in the next chapter on the following statement* that when both sexes are coloured in a very conspicuous manner the nest is of such a nature as to conceal the sitting bird but when there is a marked contrast of colour between the sexes the male being gay and the female dull-coloured the nest is open and exposes the sitting bird to view. This coincidence as far as it goes certainly seems to favour the belief that the females which sit on open nests have been specially modified for the sake of protection but we shall presently see that there is another and more probable explanation namely that conspicuous females have acquired the instinct of building domed nests oftener than dull-coloured birds. Mr Wallace admits that there are as might be expected some exceptions to his 10 rules, but it is a question whether the exceptions are not so numerous as seriously to invalidate them.

There is in the first place much truth in the
J. rnal of T and, edited by A. Murray vol. 1.
 1863, p. 78.

BIRDS

CAP XV

BIRDS
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Therefore if other species of *Gallus* and *Columba* were described and varied, it could not be rash to predict that similar rules of sexual similarity and dissimilarity depend on the form of transmission, would hold good in both cases. In like manner the same form of transmission has generally prevailed under natural though the same groups, although marked exceptions to this rule occur. Thus in the same family of *Canis*, the sexes may be identically alike, or very different in colour. Instances have already been given in the same genus, as with parrots, flycatchers, thrush, and grouse. In the family of pheasants the sexes of almost all the species are wonderfully dissimilar, but are quite alike in the peared pheasant. *Carpiloides* and *Introspecies* of *Chlorophaga*, the male cannot be distinguished from the female, whilst the two others, the

third pair of that requires the same adult plumage as that possessed by the male, but much earlier. The female of *Bombus* *carolinensis* differs very little from the male, but the heads of red

male. In the male of an *Alcedo* (Palm) the upper mandible is lost, but in the female it is not.

all respects. But these few are ultimately furnished with tufts of hair on the sides of the head.

to us

These cases must not be confounded with those where diseased old females and small and masculine characters, new with those where the females, whilst young, acquire the characteristics of the male through the action of some unknown cause. But all these cases have so much in common that they depend accordingly on the hypothesis of partial sexual immatures derived from each part of the male being present, though latent, in the female, the development following on some slight change in the elective affinities of the constituent tissues.

A few words must be added on changes of plumage in relation to the season of the year.

When the male courts the female these remarks are best directed at the great difference in the treatment of the sexes. A few

present an intermediate grade which is ultimately changed to the same as that of the male. So again the female *Falco peregrinus* acquires a blue plumage more like than the male. Mr. Swinhoe states that with one of the drongos, *Dicrurus macropterus*, the male whilst almost a nestling, moults into soft brown plumage and becomes of a uniform glossy greenish black, but the female retains for a long time the whitish streaks and spots of the larval feathers and does not completely assume the uniform black colour of the male for three years. The same excellent observer remarks that in the first of the second year the female has a bill (Plumage). In China resembles the male of the first year and that appears to be the case until the

*The *Ibis* vol. vi., 1864 p. 122.

are instances with *Lanius*, *Ruficollis*, *Lanius*, and *Alcedo* has been recorded similar case (Or *thology Biog. phy. ol.* p. 519) with *Pyr. g.*

species have their heads of an equally bright crimson in other species the difference between the sexes in the amount of scarlet is so slight that it can hardly make any appreciable difference in the danger incurred and lastly the colouring of the head in the two sexes often differ slightly in other ways

The cases as yet given of slight and graduated differences in colour between the males and females in the groups in which as a general rule the sexes resemble each other all relate to species which build domed or concealed nests. But similar gradations may likewise be observed in groups in which the sexes as a general rule resemble each other but which build open nests

As I have before instanced in the case of the chaffinch, the differences in plumage between the sexes are of the same general nature as the occasionally greater differences in the case of the bullfinch

In the manner in the two sexes. Similar cases may be observed with parrots and pigeons. The differences in colour between the sexes of the same species are also of the same general nature as the differences in colour between the distinct species of the same group. For when in a group in which the sexes are usually alike the male differs considerably from the female he is not coloured in quite a new style. Hence we may infer that within the same group the special colours of both sexes when they are alike and the colours of the male when he differs slightly or even considerably from the female have been in most cases determined by the same general cause thus being sexual selection.

It is not probable as has already been remarked that differences in colour between the sexes when very slight can be of service to the female as a protection. Assuming however that they are of service to the male, I might be thought to be cases of transition but we have no reason to believe that many species at any one time are undergoing change. Therefore we can hardly admit that the numerous females which differ very slightly in colour from their males are now all coming to become of service for the sake of protection. Even if we consider

somewhat more marked sexual differences, is it probable for instance, that the head of the female chaffinch—the crimson on the breast of the female bullfinch—the green of the female greenfinch—the crest of the female golden crested wren have all been rendered less bright by the slow process of selection for the sake of protection? I cannot think so and still less with the slight difference between the sexes of those birds which build concealed nests. On the other hand the differences in colour between the sexes whether great or small may to a large extent be explained on the principle of the successive variations acquired by the males through sexual selection, having been from the first more or less inherited in their transmission to the females. That the degree of limitation should differ in different species of the same group will not surprise any one who has studied the subject.

As far as I can discover there are few large groups of birds in which all the species have both sexes alike and brilliantly coloured but I hear from Mr Selater that this appears to be the case with the Mniotiltidae or plantain-eater. Nor do I believe that any large group exists in which the sexes of all the species are so nearly similar in colour. Mr Wallace informs me that the chaffinch is one of the few

birds throughout the world and this from the fact that the female has the same nature of inheritance as the male in all circumstances. But that the male has a large pre-ail with all the animals in its prison. The female fowl has produced a great number of breeds and the male has the same sex generally different plumage so that it has been noticed as an unusual circumstance when in certain sub-breeds they resemble each other. On the other hand the domestic pigeon has likewise produced a great number of distinct breeds and all breeds are in the wild rare except in the two sexes are identically alike.

CHAPTER XVI

BIRD—C related

We must now consider the transmission of characters, as limited by age in reference to sexual selection. The truth and importance of the principle of inheritance in corresponding cases need not here be discussed, as enough has already been said on the subject. Before coming to the several rather complex rules or classes of cases, under which the differences in plumage between the young and the old, as far as known to me may be met with, it will be well to make a few preliminary remarks.

With animals of all kinds when the adult is younger in colour from the young, and the colours of the latter are not, as far as we can see, of any special service the young generally bear a striped, like various embryological structures, the retention of a former character. But this view can be maintained with confidence only when the young of several species resemble each other closely and likewise resemble other adult species belonging to the same group for the latter are the living proof that such a state of things was formerly possible. Young hares and pumas are marked with feeble stripes or rows of spots, and as many allied species both old and young are similarly marked.

Believing in evolution will doubt that the progenitor of the lion and puma was a striped animal, and that the young has retained a trace of the stripes, like the kittens of black cats, which are of a rather faintly striped when grown. Many species of deer which when mature are spotted, are whilst young covered with white spots, as are likewise some few species of the adult cat, so gain the young with the family of polecats, foxes, and polecats rather distinctly adult animals, has the tiger are marked with dark longitudinal stripes. I have been here characteristically determined from an extensive progenitor and now present the young of the lion has the stripes which have been the course of the white stripes which are retained but little red, and this has been effected through the principle of inheritance in correspondence.

The same principle applies to many other birds below the adult group, in which the young resemble the adult and the adult in their respective adult parents. The young

of almost all the Gallinaceae and of some distant allied birds such as ostriches, are covered with longitudinal striped down but the characteristic points lack a state of thin so remote that the larva concerns us. Young crossbills (*Loxia*) have the first trace of the like those of other finches, and in their immature striped plumage they resemble the mature redpoll and female siskin, as well as the young of the goldfinch, greenfinch, and some other allied species. The young of many kinds of bee-eaters (*Hirundo*) resemble one another and likewise the adult of the common hunting *F. m. harrisi*. In the whole large group of thrushes the young have the breast spotted—a character which is retained throughout life in many species, but quite lost in others, as in the *Turdus migratorius* so again with many thrushes, the feathers on the back are mottled before they are moulted for the first time and this character is retained for a long certain extent in species. The young of many species of shrikes (*Lanius*) of some woodpeckers, and of an Indian pigeon (*Columba* *slapensis*) retain a very distinct striped on the under

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no account use the same principle as Dendrocygna, when mature similar to the willow reed, being again in regard to certain hares. Young black grouse (*Tetrao tetrix*) resemble the young as well as the old of certain species, for instance the red grouse or *Tetrao himalayensis*. Mr. Blanford, who has attended closely to the subject, has well remarked, the natural affinities of many species are best indicated in their immature plumage and

I recorded the thrushes, shrikes, woodpeckers, see Mr. Blanford, *Ch. north* *M. J. J. Vol. II* *Vol. I* *p. 304* *so far* *the* *his* *trace* *of* *C. I. p. 159* *I* *the* *case* *of* *L. m. Blyth* *form* *O. thrushes* *see* *so* *and* *bum* *O. the* *bug* *p. 125* *O. Chr. vociferans* *d. Chalcip. ps.* *Blyth* *q. ted* *J. rd.* *birds of India* *vol. p. 145* *O. the* *d. m. Blyth.* *Ibis* *1867* *p. 13*

From reasons formerly assigned there can be little doubt that the elegant plumes long pendant feathers crests &c of egrets herons and many other birds which are developed and retained only during the summer serve for ornamental and nuptial purpose though common to both sexes The female is thus rendered more conspicuous during the period of incubation than during the winter but such birds as herons and egrets would be able to defend themselves As however plumes would probably be inconvenient and certainly of no use during the winter it is possible that the habit of moulting twice in the year may have been gradually acquired through natural selection for the sake of casting off inconvenient ornaments during the winter But this view cannot be extended to the many waders whose summer and winter plumages differ very little in colour With defenceless species in which both sexes or the males alone become extremely conspicuous during the breeding season—or when the males acquire at this season such long wing or tail feathers as to impede their flight as with *Cosmetornis* and *Vidua*—it certainly at first appears highly probable that the second moult has been gained for the special purpose of throwing off these ornaments We must however remember that many birds such as some of the birds of paradise the Argus pheasant and peacock do not cast their plume during the winter and it can hardly be maintained that the constitution of these birds at least of the Gallinaceæ renders a double moult impossible for the ptarmigan moults thrice in the year²² Hence it must be considered as doubtful whether the many spe-

cies which moult their ornamental plumes or lose their bright colours during the winter have acquired this habit on account of the inconvenience or danger which they would otherwise have suffered

I conclude therefore that the habit of moulting twice in the year was in most or all cases first acquired for some distinct purpose perhaps for gaining a warmer winter covering and that variations in the plumage occurring during the summer were accumulated through sexual selection and transmitted to the offspring at the same season of the year that such variations were inherited either by both sexes or by the males alone according to the form of inheritance which prevailed This appears more probable than that the species in all cases originally tended to retain their ornamental plumage during the winter but were saved from this through natural selection resulting from the inconvenience or danger thus caused

I have endeavoured in this chapter to shew that the arguments are not trustworthy in favour of the view that weapons bright colour and various ornaments, are now confined to the males owing to the conversion by natural selection of the equal transmission of characters to both sexes into transmission to the male sex alone It is also doubtful whether the colours of many female birds are due to the preservation for the sake of protection of variations which were from the first limited in

transmission to the female sex But it will

²²See Gould's *Birds of Great Britain*.

the young and old

BIRDS

p co cerned is

CHAP XVI

habited till more nearly in certain anomalous
case thus the male of *H. liothrix* a little
(on the hummingbird) differs conspicuously
from the female in having a plumage
grey and fine artifice, but the female is re-

th respects, including the blue
so that the tail feathers are actually black
bright as the feathers of the male which is most
unusual circumstance. Again the plumage of
the male (Merganser) is

of the same
occurs, as far as I know in any of the birds, the
crest feathers of the male the glaucous blue
the female conspires with the rest be-

to the same
seemingly the difference so that the rest
are the same for the glaucous blue
than in the adult male

With the young and the females I only re-

serve the difference from the
male
male
and
the same

be partially lost by the adult male in
some explained cause and transferred in
their immature state to the male offspring
also has arrived at the corresponding
[unat] Th belief that the present loss
the male has been modified, as far as the
differences between the male and the female

less brilliant coloured in some species of Dendroica
the males have blue tails, and the females have
the same. M. R. B. Sharpe informs that the tail
of the young male of *D. auduboni* is first
brown. M. Gould has described (bird 1, pp
11 & 37) the sexes of the young of certain black
cockatoos of the King's Gorge, the white of the
same rule prevails. Also I read (*Birds of India*, 1
p 260) the *Polioptila* has the young of the
male resemble the female than the male. See Audubon
(*Ornithology of Biographia*, 1, p 4) the two
sexes and the young of *Colaptes passeri*

I thus inform that M. Gould has been ed-
ited by the present see also his *Introduction to the*
Trochilidae 1861 p. 120

Macgillivray *Hist. Brit. Birds* 1, pp 207
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distinction for the same
representative species the adult males have
undergone a certain amount of change and can
be distinguished the females and the young of
from distinct countries being not tinged with
able and therefore absolutely unchanged

Thus the case with certain Indian chats
(*Thamnolais*) with certain honeycreepers
(*Nectarinia*) hrikes (*Tephrodornis*) certain
kingfishers (*Tanysiptera*) kingfishers
(*Gallinula*) and tree partridges (*Arboricola*)

I should mention some cases, namely with the
honeycreepers of the same family nearly all cer-
tain species with the same sex nearly all cer-
tain species with the same sex nearly all cer-
tain species with the same sex nearly all cer-
tain species with the same sex nearly all cer-
tain species with the same sex nearly all cer-
tain species with the same sex nearly all cer-
tain species with the same sex nearly all cer-

both the adult and the young of the same sex
all the same in the same sex with two
the species of *Ardeola* both sexes are the same
of the same sex and the same sex nearly the same

seasons, the same sex
to the same sex we are colored in all the same
cases, the same sex in the same sex with two
the same sex is regularly acquired both the adult
male and the young of the same sex, and the same
mated to the adult male of the same sex the same
young of the same sex has been modified with the
white and the same sex plumage has been lost
the same sex.

as the true affinities of all organic beings depend on their descent from a common progenitor this remark strongly confirms the belief that the immature plumage approximately shews us the former or ancestral condition of the species

Although many young birds belonging to various families thus give us a glimpse of the plumage of their remote progenitors yet there are many other birds, both dull coloured and bright-coloured in which the young closely resemble their parents. In such cases the young of the different species cannot resemble each other more closely than do

far that when the young and the old are coloured in the same general manner throughout a whole group of species it is probable that their progenitors were similarly coloured

We may now consider the classes of cases under which the differences and resemblances between the plumage of the young and the old in both sexes or in one sex alone may be grouped. Rules of this kind were first enounced by Cuvier but with the progress of knowledge they require some modification and amplification. This I have attempted to do as far as the extreme complexity of the subject permits from information derived from various sources but a full essay on this subject by some competent ornithologist is much needed. In order to ascertain to what extent each rule prevails, I have tabulated the facts given in four great works namely by Macgillivray on the birds of Britain Audubon on those of North America, Jerdon on those of India and Gould on those of Australia. I may here premise first that the several cases or rules graduate into each other and secondly that when the young are said to resemble their parents it is not meant that they are identically alike for their colours are almost always less vivid and the feathers are softer and often of a different shape

RULES OR CLASSES OF CASES

I When the adult male is more cautious or conspicuous than the adult female the young of both sexes in their first plumage closely resemble the adult female as with the common fowl and peacock or as occasionally occurs they resemble her much more closely than they do the adult male

II When the adult female is more conspicuous

ous than the adult male as sometimes though rarely occurs the young of both sexes in their first plumage resemble the adult male

III When the adult male resembles the adult female the young of both sexes have a peculiar first plumage of their own as with the robin

IV When the adult male resembles the adult female the young of both sexes in their first plumage resemble the adults, as with the kingfisher many parrots, crows hedge-warblers

V When the adults of both sexes have a distinct winter and summer plumage whether or not the male differs from the female the young resemble the adults of both sexes in their winter dress or much more rarely in their summer dress or they resemble the females alone. Or the young may have an intermediate character or again they may differ greatly from the adults in both their seasonal plumages.

VI In some few cases the young in their first plumage differ from each other according to sex the young males resembling more or less closely the adult males and the young females more or less closely the adult females.

CLASS I In this class the young of both sexes more or less closely resemble the adult female whilst the adult male differs from the adult female often in the most conspicuous manner. Innumerable instances in all Orders could be given it will suffice to call to mind the common pheasant duck and house parrot. The cases under this class graduate into others. Thus the two sexes when adult may differ so slightly and the young so slightly from the adults that it is doubtful whether such cases

ever are few or at least are not strongly pronounced in comparison with those which come strictly under the present class

The force of the present law is well shown in those groups in which as a general rule the two sexes and the young are all alike for when in these groups the male does differ from the female as with certain parrots, kingfishers, pigeons &c the young of both sexes resemble the adult female. We see the same fact ex

See first of Mr Cullis' collection (Hindbook)
(th B d f t ad l p 133) of (yanak)
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) g male th gh resembl g th ad h f male is

BIRDS

LAP XVI

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M g li y H torj of British B d l
 pp 172-174

In add t n t th ffects of the part l

ted to select a. *W. m. m.* —
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In addition to the effects of the partial

transference of characters from the males to the females some of the differences between the females of closely allied species may be attributed to the direct or definite action of the conditions of life.¹¹ With the males any such action would generally have been masked by the brilliant colours gained through sexual selection but not so with the females. Each of the endless diversities in plumage which we see in our domesticated birds is of course the result of some definite cause and under natural and more uniform conditions some one tint assuming that it was in no way injurious would almost certainly

change of colour thus introduced uniform in character

No one doubts that both sexes of many birds have had their colours adapted for the sake of protection and it is possible that the females alone of some species may have been modified for this end. Although it would be a difficult perhaps an impossible process as shewn in the last chapter to convert one form of transmutation into another through selection there would not be the least difficulty in adapting the colours of the female independently of those of the male to surrounding objects through the accumulation of variations which were from the first limited in their transmission to the female sex. If the variations were not thus limited the bright tints of the male would be deteriorated or destroyed. Whether the females alone of many species have been thus specially modified is at present very doubtful. I wish I could find

to the female as a protection would be at once obliterated instead of being lost simply by not being selected or from free interbreeding or from being eliminated when transferred to the male and in any way injurious to him. Thus the plumage of the female would be kept constant in character. It would also be a relief if we could admit that the obscure tints of both sexes of many birds had been acquired and preserved for the sake of protection—for example of the hedge warbler or kittiwren (*Leucorod modularis* and *Troglodytes vulgaris*) with respect to which we have no sufficient evidence of the action of sexual selection. We ought however to be cau-

¹¹ See on this subject chapter x. of the Introduction. *J.A. male and female Domestication.*

tious in concluding that colours which appear to us dull are not attractive to the females of certain species we should bear in mind such cases as that of the common house sparrow in which the male differs much from the female but does not exhibit any bright tints. No one probably will dispute that many gallinaceous birds which live on the open ground have acquired their present colour at least in part for the sake of protection. We know how well they are thus concealed. We know that ptarmigans, whilst changing from their winter to their summer plumage both of which are protective suffer greatly from birds of prey. But can we believe that the very slight differences in tints and markings between for instance the female black grouse and red grouse serve as a protection. Are partridges as they are now coloured better protected than if they had resembled quails? Do the slight differences between the females of the common pheasant the Japan and gold pheasants serve as a protection or might not their plumage have been interchanged with impunity. From

stances are beneficial. For myself I will only say that I am not convinced.

Formerly when I was inclined to lay much stress on protection as accounting for the duller colours of female birds it occurred to me that possibly both sexes and the young might aboriginally have been equally brightly coloured but that subsequently the females from the danger incurred during incubation and the young from being inexperienced had been rendered dull as a protection. But this view is not supported by any evidence and is not probable for we thus in imagination expose during past times the female and the young to danger from which it has subsequently been necessary to shield their modified descent. We know

On the supposition that the females and the young take part in every stage of the process of mutation of a tendency to be as brightly coloured as the males, it is also a somewhat strange fact that the female have never been rendered fully coloured without the young part parting in the same change for their protection as far as I can discern species with the female dull and the young brightly coloured.

BIRDS

CHAP. XVI

partial exception how r if red by the
young of certain woodpeckers, the haec
the whole upper part of the head tinged
the ed much afterward the r decreases
not mere circular red in the ad its
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on this point as a cue to the t that obsc re
col rsl been acquired for the sake of pro-
tection during the pe od f: t g Adff r
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Ct. II *He the ad l t f e m l m con*
p th the adult male th y g f both
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g ha rel t n h l f x i s t s betwe th l s s
l g l t col r s f t l m l and th p e f r m
g t l d t f incub t l g r t t s s

And bon, Ornith. B op why l p 103 Mac-
gill ray History f Brit A B d r l p 85 See
also th case bel re g of Ind p cu ca lotta.

g i k g -cocks. t mal bird re xposed
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t p r d to tch t l r m l by e t
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ar pl ed l I d a W l n th u e posed t l e
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m l w l l t r u n j dly to t l pot
and comm ce fighting w th th caged b r d In
th w v from t w l e to t w n t y b r d all breed
f males m y b caught t l cours of a
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th ad l t mal

Tl f m l f th t l r e pec f p a i t ed
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B t m nater Review Jul 1867 and A Murray
J ual f T l 1868 p 63
f th t t r a l pec see G u l d H ad
book d l pp t 8, 180 186 d 188 I th
Brit b Museum p e c i a s f th Aust al pl
d (f d i a n o m t q t) m y b see

transference of characters from the males to the females some of the differences between the females of closely allied species may be attributed to the direct or definite action of the conditions of life. With the males any such action would generally have been masked by the brilliant colours gained through sexual selection but not so with the females. Each of the endless diversities in plumage which we see in our domesticated birds is of course the result of some definite cause and under natural and more uniform conditions some one tint assuming that it was in no way injurious would almost certainly sooner or later prevail. The free intercrossing of the many individuals belonging to the same species would ultimately tend to make any change of colour thus induce uniformity in character.

No one doubts that both sexes of many birds have had their colours adapted for the sake of protection and it is possible that the females alone of some species may have been modified for this end. Although it would be a difficult perhaps an impossible process as shewn in the last chapter.

Uniformity in character is an adaptation of the female independently of those of the male to surrounding objects through the accumulation of variations which were from the first limited in their transmission to the female sex. If the variations were not thus limited the bright tints of the male would be deteriorated or destroyed. Whether the females alone of many species have been thus specially modified is at present very doubtful. I wish I could follow Mr.

The female as a protection would be at once obliterated instead of being lost simply by not being selected or from interference in transferring to the male and in any way injurious to him. Thus the plumage of the female would be kept constant in character. It would also be a relief if we could admit that the obscure tints of both sexes of many birds had been acquired and preserved for the sake of protection—for example of the hedge warbler or kitty wren (*Seecitor modularis* and *Troglodytes vulgaris*) with respect to which we have no sufficient evidence of the action of sexual selection. We ought, however to be cau-

See on this subject p. x. The fact is that males and females under domestication.

the male differs much from the female but does not exhibit any bright tints. No one probably will dispute that many gallinaceous birds which live on the one

are the most we know that ptarmigans, whilst changing from their winter to their summer plumage both of which are protective suffer greatly from birds of prey. But can we believe that the very slight differences in tints and markings between for instance the female black grouse and red grouse serve as a protection. Are partridges as they are now coloured better protected than if they had resembled quails? Do the slight differences between the females of the common pheasant the Japan and gold pheasants serve as a protection or might not their plumages have been interchanged with impunity. From

these reasons are beneficial. For myself I will only say that I am not convinced.

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BIRDS

CHAP. XVI

have not been able to discover whether with these species the young resemble the adult males more closely than the adult females for the comparison is somewhat difficult to make on account of the double plumage.

Turning now to the ostrich (*Struthio camelus*) of the common cassowary (*Casuarus casuarus*) would be thought by an observer to be the female from his smaller size and from the appendages and naked skin about his head being much less brightly coloured and I am informed by Mr. F. T. H. T. T. Zoological Gardens, that

with more strongly contrasted colours than the less he undertakes the whole duty of incubation.²⁴

I will specify the few other cases known to me in which the female is more conspicuous than the male although not generally known also to the manner of incubation. With the caracara of the Falkland Islands (*Mitrocybe caracara*) I was much surprised to find by dissection that the individuals, which had all their tints strongly pronounced with the cere and legs orange-coloured were the adult females whilst those with the darker plumage and grey legs were the males or the young. In an Australian tree-creeper (*Climacteris erythrura*) the female differs from the male in being adorned with the black, radiated rufous markings on the throat, the male having this part quite plain. Lastly, in the Australasian nightjar the female always exceeds the male in size and the brilliance of her tints the males, on the other hand have two white spots on the primaries more conspicuous than in the female.²⁵

We thus see that the case in which the female birds are more conspicuously coloured than the males, with the young in their immature plumage resembling the adult males, is that of the adult females, as in the previous class, are not numerous, though the few are distributed in an order. The amount of difference also,

the young from their mother as soon as she catches sight of her progeny he becomes violently excited and not tolerating the resistance of the father appears to use her most decided destruction. For months afterwards it is usual to find the parents together violent quarrel being the usual result in which the female gains all comes off conqueror so that with this in view the competition of the parent and incubating instincts, but of the usual moral qualities of the two sexes the female seems to be more quarrelsome and noisier than the male gentle and good. The case is very different with the African struthio the male is somewhat larger than the female and has fine plumage

in the incubation of the Struthionidae.

²⁴The natives of Ceram (Wassner, *Monatsschrift für Ethnologie*, p. 10) assert that the male and female sit alternately on the eggs but this assertion, as Mr. Bartlett thinks, may be accounted for by the female sitting the nest a day longer.

²⁵The *Struthio*, April 16, p. 124.

²⁶See the true account of the habits of this bird under confinement, by Mr. A. W. Bennett, in *Land and Water* May 1868, p. 233.

which her back is redder than that of the male the head of the male is of rich dark bronzed colour and his back is clothed with finely pointed slate-coloured feathers, so that whether he may be considered as the more beautiful of the two he is larger and more pugnacious than the female, and does not sit on the eggs so that in these respects this species comes under our first class of cases but Mr. Slater (*Proceedings of the Zoological Society* 1866 p. 100) was much surprised to observe that the young of both sexes, when about three months old, resembled in their dark heads and necks the adult males, instead of the adult females so that it would appear in this case that the females have been modified, whilst the males and the young have retained their former state of plumage.

FIG 62 *Rhynchops* (fr m Brehm)

tralis it is simple in the male whilst in the female it makes four distinct convolutions before entering the lungs.¹⁷ The female therefore of this species has acquired an eminently masculine character. Mr Bluthner, ascertained by examining many specimens that the trachea is not convoluted in either sex of *R. bengalensis* which species resembles *R. australis* so closely that it can hardly be distinguished except by its shorter toes. This fact is another striking instance of the law that secondary sexual characters are often widely different in closely allied forms though it is a very rare circumstance when such differences relate to the female sex. The young of both sexes of *R. bengalensis* in their first plumage are said to resemble the mature male.¹⁸ There is also reason to believe that the male undertakes the duty of incubation for Mr Sillimant and the females before the close of the summer as occurs with the females of the Turnix.

¹⁷ Gould's *Handbook of the Birds of the United States*, p. 273.

¹⁸ *The Indian Fauna*, Sept. 1858, p. 3.

¹⁹ *Ibid.* 1866, p. 293.

The females of *I. halaropus fulicarius* and

is far from conspicuous. According to Professor Steenstrup the male alone of *I. fulicarius* undertakes the duty of incubation this is likewise shown by the state of his breast feathers during the breeding season. The female of the dotterel plover (*Ludromia morinellus*) is larger than the male and has the red and black tints on the lower surface the white crescent on the breast and the stripes over the eyes more strongly pronounced. The male also takes at least a far more interest in the egg than the female like to attend to the young.²⁰

For the purpose of illustrating the difference in the habits of the male and female of the same species, I have selected the following examples:—
 The male of the frigatebird (*Rhynchops*) is far from conspicuous. According to Professor Steenstrup the male alone of *I. fulicarius* undertakes the duty of incubation this is likewise shown by the state of his breast feathers during the breeding season. The female of the dotterel plover (*Ludromia morinellus*) is larger than the male and has the red and black tints on the lower surface the white crescent on the breast and the stripes over the eyes more strongly pronounced. The male also takes at least a far more interest in the egg than the female like to attend to the young.²⁰

BIRDS

CHAP XVI

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Jerd B d f Ind L pp 222, 228
Gould H ndbook to the B ds f A t alia, l.
pp 124 130

*C uld, ibid., l. pp 37 46 6

A d b Ornith B og phy l. u., p. 55

I re two f A mals nd Pl nts nder D m st
at on, l p 79
Cha lesworth M gazine f N t al History

(Cygn lor)

I am und bted to M Blyth f f rm ti
regard t this g us. Th sp rr w f l alesi be-
l g st th b-g us P tr uia.

between the sexes is incomparably less than that which frequently occurs in the last class so that the cause of the difference whatever it may have been has here acted on the females either less energetically or less persistently than on the males in the last class. Mr Wallace believes that the males have had their colours rendered less conspicuous for the sake of protection during the period of incubation but the difference between the sexes in hardly any of the foregoing cases appears sufficiently great for this view to be safely accepted. In some of the cases the brighter tints of the female are almost confined to the lower surface and the males if thus coloured would not have been exposed to danger whilst sitting on the eggs. It should also be borne in mind that the males are not only in a slight degree less conspicuously coloured than the females but are smaller and weaker. They have moreover not only acquired the maternal instinct of incubation but are less pugnacious and vociferous than the females and in one instance have simpler vocal organs. Thus an almost complete transposition of the instincts habits disposition colour size and of some points of structure has been effected between the two sexes.

Now if we might assume that the males in the present class have lost some of that ardour which is usual to their sex so that they no longer search eagerly for the females or if we might assume that the females have become much more numerous than the males—and in the case of one Indian *Turnix* the females are said to be much more commonly met with than the males—then it is not improbable that the females would have been led to court the males instead of being courted by them. This in deed is the case to a certain extent with some birds as we have seen with the peahen wild turkey and certain kinds of grouse. Taking as our guide the habits of most male birds, the greater size and strength as well as the extraordinary pugnacity of the females of the *Turnix* and emu must mean that they endeavour to drive away rival females in order to gain possession of the male and on this view all the facts become clear for the males would probably be most charmed or excited by the females which were the most attractive to them by their bright colour other ornaments or vocal powers. Sexual selection would then do its work steadily adding to the attractions of the females the males and the young being left not at all, or but little modified.

*Jerdon *Birds of India*, v. 1, p. 593.

CLASS III. *When the adult male resembles the adult female the young of both sexes have a peculiar first plumage of their own*—In this class the sexes when adult resemble each other and differ from the young.

occur with
le plumage
female but
their mol
The male

... of the splendid scarlet bills are alike whilst the young are brown and the scarlet colour though common to both sexes is apparently a sexual character for it is not well developed in either sex under confinement and a loss of colour often occurs with brilliant males when they are confined. With many species of herons the young differ greatly from the adults and the summer plumage of the latter though common to both sexes, clearly has a nuptial character. Young swans are slate-coloured whilst the mature birds are pure white but it would be superfluous to give additional instances. These differences between the young and the old apparently depend as in the last two classes on the young having retained a former or ancient state of plumage whilst the old of both sexes have acquired a new one. When the adults are brightly coloured we may conclude from the remarks just made in relation to the scarlet bill and to many herons and from the analogy of the species in the first class that such colours have been acquired through sexual selection by the nearly mature males but that differently from what occurs in the first two classes the transition though limited to the same sex has not been limited to the same sex. Consequently the sexes when mature resemble each other and differ from the young.

CLASS IV. *Hereditary*

... of the sexes of the brilliant and securely coloured resemble each other. In the case of the I think more common than the ... class. We have in English literature the kingfisher sometimes peckers the ... magpie crow and many small full-coloured birds such as the ... warbler ... kitten wren. But the ... in plumage between the young and the ... is never complete and graduates away into his similarity. The young of some members of the kingfisher family are not only less vividly coloured than the adults, but many of the feathers on the lower surface are edged with

paradise) in re —
fishes continue increasing size, as long as they are
in good health & have plenty of food & some-
what similar law may prevail with the plumages of
birds.

CLASS V. When the adults of both sexes have dis-
tinct winter and summer plumage whether or not the
male differs from the female the young resemble the
adults of both sexes their winter dress or more
fully their summer dress as or they resemble the fe-
male alone. Of the young many have never known
the other sex, they may differ greatly from the
adults both their seasonal plumage. — The cases in
this class are usually complicated thus sur-
prising, as they depend on hereditary limits in
greater or less degree three different ways, namely
by sex gender & the season of the year. I some-
times find individuals of the same species pass through
at least five different states of plumage. With the
species, such the male differs from the female
during the summer season, although he is rarer
during both seasons, the young generally resemble
the females, — as with the so-called goldenfinch of
North America, and compare with the plumed
Malurus of Australia. With these species, the sexes
of which are alike during both the summer and win-

case —

early time of plumage are coloured in
adults during the summer & the young of the
white-crowned parrot of North America (*Pr. gill*
leucophrys) is as soon as fledged, has a light white
tripe the iridescent, which are lost by the young
and the old during the winter. With respect to the
third mannerly time of the young's change

ter-
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cure-
y
ad-
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dia, — the young's change be-
fall making only a few remarks these compli-
cated cases. With the young's changeable the female
the iridescent dress, & the adult's of both sexes
the iridescent dress, the change differs from those given
and Classes I and III by the character usually
acquired by the males during the breeding
season, has a limited transmission
to the corresponding season. With the change
distinction of summer & winter plumage, and the young's
differs from both, the case is more difficult to
treat. We may doubt as probable that the young's
change retained the same of plumage can
account by several sets for the summer plu-
mages of the different birds which are with the

birds there seem good reason for this admission
It may be suggested that the birds differ in the
time of life during the winter and summer has
been in direct manner the plumage thus in
has had some effect, but I have not much evidence
of so great difference as sometimes see
between the two plumages, having been thus caused
A more probable explanation is, that the
style of plumage partially modified through the
transference of some characters from the summer

Jerdon *Birds of India*, I. vol. p. 507 the
peacock. Dr. Marshall thinks that the older birds
more brilliant males of birds of paradise have

transmission according to age, season, & sex but
it would not be right to suppose full with
these complete relations.

I am indebted to Mr. Blyth for information
the Birds see also Jerdon, *Birds of India*, I.
p. 749 On the Anastomus, see Blyth, *Ibis* 1867

See Audubon *Ornithological Biography* vol.
I. p. 172. For the Malurus, Gould *Handbook of the*
Birds of Australia, vol. I. p. 318.

the young of certain herons & grebes being white.
History of British Birds, I. vol. 1859 p. 159.

sp
 u which occurred in the
 ag t being th n selected—on th cont ary
 being oft illuminated as dangerou —whilst
 similar an tio occ rring t or n ar th
 period f reprod ti ha e been preser ed t
 f llo s that the plum g f th y g w ll
 ft ha been l ft unmod fied o b t littl
 modified. We th s get som na ght to th
 col uring f th prog nit s f o xi ting
 peci s. l ast n mbe f pece inf t
 f six lasse f as s, the ad lts f n sex
 o f both are bright col ed t l ast d ring
 th breeding easo w ll th y o g are
 anabl l s brightly col red than th ad lts,
 are q t d il col red f r no instance s
 kn as far as I can disco r f th u g f
 d ll-coloured peci displaying bright col s,
 o f th y ung f bright-col ured peci b
 g m brilliant than th pare ts. In the
 f urth class, b we in which th y o ng and
 th ld resembl ach th r th e ar many
 peci (th gh by n m an all) f which the
 y ung are b ght-col ued and as th f m
 ld gro ps, w m y f th t th arl prog
 nit s re lik ise bright. W th this excep
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the e are many black and black-and w l to
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 tect

In regard to b rds which l o the grou d
 e r v one adm ts th t they are colo red so as
 t m tate tl rrou d g s face If w diffi
 c lt it is t see a p rtr dge s pe woodcock,
 certain glo r larks, a d night jays w n
 cro ched n grou d \ m la nhab t g des
 e ts ff r th m t t king cases, f r th bare
 surface all rd no co cealm nt and n arly all
 th mall quadrupeds, reptil s, and birds de
 pe d f saf ty o tl r colo rs. M Tristram
 has remarked s regard t the inh b tants f
 th alara, that all re protected by th r
 isab ll n r sand-col u ¹⁰ Calling t my
 ecollect n th d sert bird of So th Am ca
 as w ll as most f the gro nd-b rd of Gre t

O the Colo f the Pl m g lat on to
 P otection.—It will ha been seen th t I can
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 lours, wh n co fined t th f m l h e
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 d bt, as f tmerly remarked that both sex
 of man b rd h had th col urs mod fied
 so as t scape th n t f th m r
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 b and M Wallace marks¹⁰ th t t
 nly th trop s, am g f re ts wh ch n
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 admitted by r y wh has t ed
 h w d fficult t is t d tingu li pa ts
 l al-co ed tree N th l ss w m t
 l mbe th t many parrots are ruam nt
 with crimson, bl and ang t rs, which
 can hardly be prot ct Woodpeck rs ar
 emin tly arboreal, b t besid green peci s,
¹⁰Edin water Review July 1867 p. 5.

th se b rds t d ff from that of th co
 g n rs. B tl se f thirteen to f th tw ty
 sa spec are col red n the same man r
 b t th se bel g to g n ra in wh l tl rule
 comm nly p ls, so th t th y t ll noth
 ing bo t th protect col rs b g the same
 n b th se f dese t birds. Of tl th r th
 teen pecies tl ee b l g t g n n whel
 th se u ally diffe from ach th r y t
 h re tly h th se alik In the remain
 ing t per s, th male diff rs from the fe
 mal b t the d ff re ce confined ch fl to
 th und urface f th pl m g wh h co
 ce led wh n th b rd cro ch th go nd
 the h d and back b ung f th sam sa d
 col ed h n th tw se s. So th t n th se
 t n peci th ppe surface f b th se s
 ha been cted and rend red like thro gh
 n t al selecti n, so the sak f protect n
 whilst th l w r s rface f the mal l ne

¹⁰In 1859 l. p. 429 t g D Roblis, h w
 ever remarks m n l t th t eords g t his
 xperi ce of th Sahara, this tatem t is too tro g

CLASS VI. The young in their first plumage differ from each other according to the young males resemble more or less closely the adult males and the young females more or less closely the adult females. The cases in the present class, though occurring in various groups, are not numerous yet it seems the most natural thing that the young should at first somewhat resemble the parents and

rmed by Mr Blyth that the young of both
 sexes can be distinguished by the character of the
 plumage. In the family there are numerous num-
 ber of similar cases have been noticed thus, the
 male blackbird (*Turdus merula*) can be distinguished
 in the nest from the female. The two sexes of the
 mockingbird (*Turdus polyglottus* Linn.) differ very
 little from each other yet the males can easily be
 distinguished at a very early age from the females by
 showing a pure white throat. The males of a forest
 thrush and of a rock thrush (*Oocorys erythrogaster*
 and *Petrochelidon lunifrons*)

sem le re edged with brown^d In the you g black
brd the w i g feathers assum th r mature ch r
acte and become bl ck aft r the oth rs on the
othe br d with two peces just named th w i g
feathers beco e blu b f re the others Th most
probable view with efer nce to th cases in the
prese it cl s is that the mal s, diff r ntly from what
occurs i Cla s I h ve tran mitted the r col urs to
their male ff p ng at an e h ge than th t at
which th y w re s t equ red fo f th m l sh d
vied whilst qu te y ung th ir characters would
probably ha been r nmitted to b th e ra s

In this a polytenu a humming b rd th m l is
plend dly coloured bl ck and green nd tw f th
ta l f others re imm ns ly le gth ned the f male
has an rdi ry ta l and l con p cu us col ur n w
the y ung mal s n t d f resembling th adult
sem l n accordance w th the common rul b gn
from th first t assume the colours propo to th ir
sex nd th r ta l f th rs soon becom l ng th
I owe th informat n t Mr Gould wh has g en

me the following more striking and as yet unpublished case. Two hummingbirds, going to the nest, were observed to feed their young, and have been ascertained that the one which is of a rich chestnut brown colour with a golden-red head, the male, hatched the other which is elegantly variegated with green and white with a metallic green head is the female. Now the young from the first sex, that resemble the adults of the corresponding sex, the resemblance gradually becoming more and more complete.

in true explanation I will not pre-
tend to say but the case too remarkable to be
passed over with indifference.

We have now seen in all six classes that an intimate relation exists between

the principle that one sex—this being in the great majority of cases the male—first acquired through variation and sexual selection bright colours or other ornaments, and transmitted them in various ways, in accordance with the recognised law of inheritance. Why variation has occurred at different periods of life even sometimes with people of the same group we don't know but with respect to the form of transmission one important determining cause seems to be the age at which the variations first appear.

Audubon Ornith Biography v L p 113
Mr C A Wright n this vol 1 1861 p 65
J r n b s f n d a l p 513 See also o the
blackbird Blyth i Chatsworth M gaz f
v i al H tory i 1837 p 113
The f l l ng d d i al cases m y be m
tu ed th y ung i f t f br n be dis-
ti guished from the y s { Audubon
d so i 18
D n l phila
d a l p
s y r Blyth b o n f r m m th t h se d th
st nechat. *Sarcola bicolor* redist guish bl t a
very early ge. M Sal n p e (I oc Zoolog Soc
18 0 p 206) the case of a humming bird, lik
the follo ng one of *Eusephus* us.

ed with plumes so long as to impede their flight.

In the same manner as the males alone of various species are black, the females being dull-coloured so in a few cases the males alone are either wholly or partially white as with the several bell-birds of South America (*Chasmorhynchus*) the Antarctic goose (*Bernicla nivalis*) the blue pheasant, &c., whilst the females are brown or obscurely mottled. The reverse, on the same principle as before, it is probable that both sexes of many birds, such as white cockatoos, several grets with their beautiful plumes, certain buses, gulls, terns, &c., have acquired their more or less completely

white plumage through sexual selection. In some of these cases the plumage becomes whiter at maturity. This is the case with certain gannets, tropic-birds, &c., and with the snow goose (*Anser hyperboreus*). As the latter breeds on the "barren grounds," where there is no red with snow and as it migrates southward during the winter there is no reason to suppose that its snow-white adult plumage serves as protection. In the *Anas serripes* we have still better evidence that the white plumage is a nuptial character. It is developed only during the summer when in their immature state, and the adults their winter dress, being grey and black. With many kinds of geese (*Larus*) the head and neck become pure white during the summer being grey or mottled during the winter and in their immature state. On the other hand, with the small gulls, or sea-mews (*Gavia*) and with some terns (stercoraria) exactly the reverse occurs for the heads of the young bird during the first year and of the adults during the winter are either pure white or much pale coloured than during the breeding-season. These latter cases offer an other instance of the capricious manner in which sexual selection appears often to have acted.

That aquatic birds have acquired white plumage so much often than terrestrial birds, probably depends their larger size and strong powers of flight, so that they can easily defend themselves or escape from birds of prey to which moreover they are not much exposed. Consequently sexual selection has not here been interfered with or guided for the sake of

protection. No doubt with birds which roam over the open ocean, the male and females could find each other in the more easily visible male conspicuous either by being perfectly white or intensely black so that these colours may possibly serve the same end as the call-notes of many land-birds.¹⁴ A white or black bird when it discovers and flies into a canoe floating the sea or cast upon the beach will be seen from a great distance, and will guide the birds of the same and other species, to the prey but as this would be a disadvantage to the first finders, the individuals which were the whitest or blackest would not thus procure more food than the less strongly coloured individuals. Hence conspicuous colours cannot have been gradually acquired for this purpose through natural selection.

As sexual selection depends on so fluctuating an element as taste, we can understand how it is that, within the same group of individuals, nearly the same habits, the same individuals exist white or nearly white as well as black, or nearly black species, — for instance both white and black cockatoos, to which ibises, swans, terns, and petrels. The bald bird like some times occur in the same group as the white black and white species for instance the black-necked swan, certain terns, and the common magpie. That a strong contrast in colour is agreeable to birds, we may conclude by looking through any large collection, for the sexes often differ from each other in the male having the paler parts of a pure white and the variously coloured dark parts of still darker tints than the female.

It would appear that there are no striking or slight changes in the sex of many birds, sometimes acted in the male bird as a charm, like changes of fashion with us. Thus the males of some parrots can hardly be said to be more beautiful than the females, at least according to our taste but the difference in such points, as in having a rose-coloured collar instead of "a bright emerald" narrow green collar in the male having a black collar instead of "a yellow diamond-collar in front, with a pale roseate instead of a plum-blue head." As so many

It may be noticed that the vultures, which roam far and wide in the air like marine birds over the ocean, three or four species are almost wholly or largely white, and that many others are black. So that here again conspicuous colours may possibly aid the sexes in finding each other during the breeding-season.

¹⁴See Jerdon in the *Geographical Magazine*, *Birds of India*, vol. 1, pp. 258-260.

¹⁴On *Larus*, *Gavia*, and *Terns*, see Macgillivray *History of British Birds*, vol. 1, pp. 51, 554, 626. On the *Anser hyperboreus*, Audubon, *Ornithological Memoirs*, vol. 1, p. 162. On the *Anas serripes*, Mr. Blyth, in *Ibis*, 1867, p. 173.

... the short-
... formerly described in the male of a
humming bird and the shortened crest of the
male goosander seem like one of the many
changes of fashion which we admire in our own
dresses

Some members of the heron family offer a
still more curious case of novelty in colouring
having as it appears been appreciated for the
sake of novelty The

sha
ed
cir

... of the allied *Iuphus coroman-
dus* are white this colour changing into a rich
golden buff during the breeding season It is
incredible that the young of these two species
as well as of some other members of the same
family " should for any special purpose have
been rendered pure white and thus made con-
spicuous to their enemies or that the adults of
one of these two species should have been pec-
cially rendered white during the winter in a
country which is never covered with snow On
the other hand we have good reason to believe
that whiteness has been gained by many birds
as a sexual ornament We may therefore con-
clude that some early progenitor of the *Idea
asha* and the *Iuphus* acquired a white plumage
for nuptial purposes and transmitted this
colour to their young so that the young and
the old became white like certain existing eg-
rets and that the whiteness was afterwards re-
tained by the young whilst it was exchanged
by the adults for more strongly pronounced
tints But if we could look still further back to
the still earlier progenitors of these two spe-
cies we should probably see the adults dark-
coloured I infer that this would be the case
from the analogy of many other birds which
are dark whilst young and when adult are
white and more especially from the case of the
Idea gularis the colours of which are the re-
verse of those of *Idea asha* for the young are
dark-coloured and the adults white the young
having retained a former state of plumage It
appears therefore that during a long line of
descent the adult progenitors of the *Idea
asha* the *Iuphus* and of some allies have

"The young of *Idea fuscata* and *Idea asha* in
the United States are like white but the adult be-
come coloured in accordance with the peculiarities of the
Autumn (Ornithological Bazaar, July 1871, p. 416
vol. 1, p. 53) seems rather peculiar in this respect
that this remarkable change of plumage is wholly
discovered in the young in autumn."

undergone the following changes of colour
first a dark slate secondly pure white and
thirdly owing to another change of fashion
(if I may so express myself) their present slaty
red lish or golden buff tints These successive
changes are intelligible only on the principle of
novelty having been admired by birds for its
own sake

Several writers have objected to the whole
theory of sexual selection by assuming that
with animals and savages the taste of the fe-
male for certain colours or other ornaments
would not remain constant for many genera-
tions that first one colour and then another
would be admired and consequently that no
permanent effect could be produced We may
admit that taste is fluctuating

... abundant evidence will be
given in two places in a future chapter that
savages of many races have admired for many
generations the same cicatrices on the limbs the
same hideously perforated lips, nostrils, or
ears distorted heads, &c. and the different cus-
toms present some analogy to the natural orna-
ments of various animals Nevertheless, with
savages such fashions do not endure for ever
as we may infer from the differences in taste re-
spect between allied tribes on the same conti-
nent So again the raisers of fancy animals
certainly have a tired for many generations
and still admire the same breeds they cannot
ly desire slight changes, which are considered
as improvements but any great or sudden
change is looked at as the greatest blemish
With birds in a state of nature

... the case We know that dove-
pigeons do not willingly associate with the
variously coloured fancy breeds that all true
birds do not commonly get partners in mar-
riage and that the black ravens of the Feroe
Islands associate with their piebald brethren But
this is like a sudden change would not pre-
clude their appreciating slight changes, any
more than it does in the case of man Hence
with respect to taste which I perceive in many
elements but partly on what is partly on a
love of novelty there seems no improbability
in animals admiring for a very long period the

success in the males alone has been usually
 ornamented through sexual selection. Inally
 from the facts given in these few chapters, we
 may conclude the two weapons of the male organs
 for producing sound and the colours of many
 kinds, brilliant and conspicuous colours, have
 generally been acquired by the male through
 sexual and sexual selection, and have been
 transmitted in an unaltered condition to the
 several laws of inheritance—the females and

the young being left comparatively but little
 modified."

Nothing as fact when a distinguished naturalist to be erroneous. But of course he
 is not fallible in answerable the accuracy of the state-
 ments quoted by me from various authorities.

one way and sometimes in another is not in most cases known but the period of variability seems often to have been the determining cause. When the two sexes have inherited all characters in common they necessarily resemble each other but as the successive variations may be differently transmitted every possible gradation may be found even within the same genus from the closest similarity to the widest dissimilarity between the sexes. With many closely allied species following nearly the same habits of life the males have come to differ from each other chiefly through the action of sexual selection whilst the females have come to differ chiefly from partaking more or less of the characters thus acquired by the males. The effects moreover of the definite action of the conditions of life will not have been masked in the females as in the males, by the accumulation through sexual selection of strongly pronounced colours and other ornaments. The individuals of both sexes however affected will have been kept at each successive period nearly uniform by the free intercrossing of many individuals.

With species in which the sexes differ in colour it is possible or probable that some of the successive variations often tend to be transmitted equally to both sexes but that when this occurred the females were prevented from acquiring the bright colours of the males by the instruction which they suffered during incubation. There is no evidence that it is possible by natural selection to convert one form of transmission into another. But there would not be the least difficulty in rendering a female dull-coloured the male being still kept bright coloured by the selection of successive variations, which were from the first limited in their transmission to the same sex. Whether the females of many species have actually been thus modified must at present remain doubtful. When through the law of the equal transmission of characters to both sexes the females were rendered as conspicuously coloured as the males, their instincts appear often to have been modified so that they were led to build concealed or conceal their nests.

In one small and curious class of cases the characters and habits of the two sexes have been completely transposed for the females are larger stronger more vociferous and brighter coloured than the male. The jays also become so quarrelsome that they often fight together for the possession of the males, like the males of other pugnacious species for

the possession of the females. If as seems probable such females habitually drive away their rivals, and by the display of their bright colours or other charms endeavour to attract the males, we can understand how it is that they have gradually been rendered, by sexual selection and sexually limited transmission more beautiful than the males—the latter being left unmodified or only slightly modified.

Whenever the law of inheritance at corresponding ages prevails but not that of sexually limited transmission then if the parents vary late in life—and we know that this constantly occurs with our poultry and occasionally with other birds—the young will be left unaffected whilst the adults of both sexes will be modified. If both these laws of inheritance prevail and either varies late in life that sex alone will be modified the other sex and the young being unaffected. When variation in brightness or in other conspicuous characters occur early in life as no doubt often happens they will not be acted on through sexual selection until the period of reproduction arrives.

Individuals arriving late in life have so often been preserved for the ornamentation of the males the females and the young being left almost unaffected and therefore like each other. With

during the summer alone the degrees and kinds of resemblance between the young and the old are exceedingly complex as it is complex apparently in the characters, first acquired by the males, being transmitted in various ways and degrees, as limited by age sex and season.

As the young of so many species have been but little modified in colour and in other ornaments we are enabled to form some judgment with respect to the plumage of their early progenitors and we may infer that the beauty of our existing species, if we look to the whole class has been largely increased since that period of which the immature plumage gives us an indirect record. Many birds, especially those which live much on the ground have undoubtedly been obscurely coloured for the sake of protection. In some instances the upper and posterior surface of the plumage has been thus coloured in both sexes, whilst the lower

types in which the females are hornless. With many animals the canine teeth in the upper or lower jaw or in both, are much larger in the males than in the females, or are absent in the latter with the exception sometimes of a rudimentary. Certain antelopes, the musk deer, camel, horse, boar, various apes, seals, and the walrus, offer instances. In the σ males of the walrus the tusks are sometimes quite absent. In the male elephant of India and in the male dugong the upper incisors form of lesser weapons. In the male narwhal the left canine alone is developed into the well known, spirally twisted, so-called horn, which is sometimes from nine to ten feet in length. It is believed that the males use these horns for fighting together for an unbroken one can rarely be obtained. Occasionally one may be found

least in most cases, that the females have been prevented from acquiring such weapons, on account of their being useless, superfluous, or in some way injurious. On the contrary as they are often used by the males for various purposes, more especially as a defence against their enemies, it is a surprising fact that they are so poorly developed, or quite absent, in the f males of so many animals. With female deer the development during each recurrent season of great branching horns, and with f male elephants the development of immense tusks, would be a great waste of vital power supposing that they were of no use to the females. Consequently they would have tended to be eliminated in the female through natural selection that is, if the successful variations were limited in their transmission to the f male sex, for otherwise the weapons of the males would have been seriously affected, and thus would have been a greater evil. On the whole, and from the consideration of the following facts, it seems probable that when the various weapons differ in the two sexes, this has generally depended on the kind of transmission which has prevailed.

female both are always rudimentary. The male reindeer has a larger head than that of the f male, and it is no doubt aids him in his aquatic labours. Lastly the adult male Ornithorhynchus is provided with remarkable apparatus, namely spur on the foreleg, which resembles the poison-fang of a venomous snake but according to Harting, the secretion from the gland is not poisonous, and on the leg of the female there is below apparently for the reception of the spur.

When the males are provided with weapons which the females are absent, there can be hardly doubt that these serve for fighting with other males and that they were acquired through sexual selection, and were transmitted to the male sex alone. It is not probable that

is the reindeer is the one species in the whole family of deer in which the female is furnished with horns, though they are somewhat smaller, thinner and less branched than in the male. It might naturally be thought that, at least in this case, they must be of some special service to her. The female retains her horns from the time when they are fully developed, namely in September throughout the winter until April or May when she brings forth her young. Mr. Crotch made particular enquiries for me in Norway and it appears that the females at this season conceal themselves for about a fortnight in order to bring forth their young, and then reappear generally hornless. In No. Scotia, however as I hear from Mr. H. Reeks, the female sometimes retains her horns longer. The male on the other hand casts his horns much earlier towards the end of November. As both sexes have the same requirements and follow the same habits of life and as the male is destitute of horns during the winter it is improbable that he can be of any special service to the female during this season, which includes the latter part of the time during which she is horned. Nor is it probable that she can have inherited horns from some ancient progenitor of the family of deer for from the fact of the females of so many species in all quarters of

M. Lillie, *Notes on the Sea-Horse* 1861, p. 115 as that of a tusk of the male exceeds 4 pounds, and is heavier than that of a female, which weighs about 3 pounds. The males are described as fighting ferociously. On the occasional absence of the tusk in the female see M. H. Brown, *Proc. Zool. Soc.* 1865, p. 129.

Wren, *History of Vertebrate Animals*, p. 253.
M. H. Brown, *Proc. Zool. Soc.* 1863, p. 503.
See Prof. Turner in *Journal of Anat. and Phys.* 1862, p. 6 on the *Evolutionary* nature of these horns. Also M. J. W. Clarke on the tusk being developed in the male, in *Proceedings of the Zool.*

SECONDARY SEXUAL CHARACTERS OF MAMMALS

All male animals which are furnished with special weapons for fighting are well known to engage in fierce battles. The courage and the desperate conflicts of stags have often been described. Their battles have been found in various parts of the world with their horns extricably locked together, leaving hopelessly the victor and vanquished perilous.

Male animal will reject all the
cent cutting, r r a r k t e a t h s t t r i n r
s u r g u e t t i k t c a r n i v e r h e e t
s o r n u l r o d i t a r e l l i m f i l e d t h
w a p e n p e a l l y r l a y e d f o r g l t i n g w i t h
t h e i r r i v a l l i e i r v i f f e r e n t t h
m a l e o f n y o t h a r a l w e e t t i m
t h e r n o f t a g a t l e x t a n k i l f a n t

See W t r t c o o i f t l r e s f g i t g
Zool g t vol. 1 1843 p 211 O l a, B l l H t f
B r i t i s h Q a d r u p e d s l t e d 100 Q m r e c k,
A u d b o n a n d B h n l r i p a Q l p e t f
A m e r i c a, 1846 p 209 O b r e, M A l l
G r e e i n J o u a l f L S o c i e t ' d g l

i p. 213 also f i On th pern bal see
 Mr J H Th myse l oe Lond see 180 p 216
 see Scrope (i f D stalk g p 17) n the
 lock i b i the h rus th th Cert l ph R h

rise f a B m r 1229 132, 232
 that th f e r l l
 f u i l l e k e l l t h e l t l l
 t u p e o f l l p e l l l l f l l u s
 t h a c o l t n .

in the bull than in the cow and in the cow having (*Bos sennarum*) the horns are remarkable small and inclined much backwards. In the domestic races of cattle, both of the humped and humpless types, the horns are short and thick in the bull, long and more slender in the cow and ox, and in the Indian *zebu*, they are shorter and thicker in the bull, longer and more slender in the cow. In the *ibid* genus (*B. sennarum*) the horns are nearly both longer and thicker in the bull than in the cow.¹ D. Forsyth Major also informs me that fossil skulls belie the fact that of the male *Bos sennarum* has been found in Val d'Asti, which is wholly without horns. In the *Elephas* it is as I may add, the horns of the female are generally longer but less powerful than in the male and in some other species of ruminants they are said to be shorter in the female.² From these various facts we may infer as probable that horns of all kinds, even when they are equally developed in the two sexes, were primarily acquired by the male in order to conquer other males, and have been transferred more or less completely to the fe-

male. On the Guinea coast there is a breed in which the females never bear horns, and, as Mr. Winwood Read informs me, the rams after castration are quite destitute of them. With cattle the horns of the males are much altered by castration, for instead of being short and thick, they become longer than those of the cow but otherwise resemble them. The *Antelope leucostictus* offers a somewhat analogous case: the males have long straight spirally horns, nearly parallel to each other and directed backwards; the females occasionally bear horns, but these when present are of a very different shape for they are not spiral, and spreading, and I bend round with the points forwards. Now it is a remarkable fact that, the castrated male as Mr. Blyth informs me, the horns are of the same peculiar shape as in the female but longer and thicker. If we may judge from analogy the female probably shews us, in these two cases of cattle and the antelope, the former condition of the horns in some early progenitor of each species. But why castration should lead to the reappearance of an early condition of the horns cannot be explained with any certainty. Nevertheless, it seems probable that in nearly the same manner as the constitutional disturbance in the offspring, caused by a cross between two distinct species or races, often leads to the reappearance of long lost characters, so here the disturbance in the constitution of the individual, resulting from castration, produces the same effect.

The tusks of the elephant, in the different species or races, differ according to sex, nearly as do the horns of ruminants. In India and Malacca the males alone are provided with well-developed tusks. The elephant of Ceylon is considered by most naturalists as a distinct race but is sometimes considered as a distinct species, and here not only a hundred is found with tusks, the few that possess them being excluded as *males*.³ The African elephant is undoubtedly distinct, and the female has large

male reindeer however must be excepted, as after castration he does retain them. This fact, as well as the possession of horns by both sexes, seems at first to prove that the horns in this species do not constitute a sexual character but as they are developed to very early age before the sexes differ in constitution, it is not surprising that they should be unaffected by castration, even if they were originally acquired by the male. With sheep both sexes properly bear horns and I am informed that with Welsh sheep the horns of the males are considerably reduced by castration but the degree depends much on the method which the operation is performed as otherwise the case with other animals. Mountain rams have large horns, but the ewes, generally speaking are without horns and the breed castration seems to produce a similar but greater effect so that if performed at an early age the horns remain almost undeveloped.⁴

¹ Lead and Water, 1867, p. 346.

² Andrew Smith, *Zoology of S. Africa*, pl. 322. On the anatomy of *Perotrochus*, vol. iii, p. 624.

³ Thus the conclusion of *Medulla*, *Die Diersche*, vol. i, p. 1.

⁴ I am much obliged to Prof. Victor Carus, for having made enquiries for me in Saxony on this sub-

ject. H. v. N. thus (I believe) is 2, p. 64) says that the horns of sheep castrated at an early period, either do not disappear or remain as mere rudiments, but I do not know whether he refers to merinos or to ordinary breeds.

I have given various arguments and other evidence proving that this is the case, in my *History of Animals*, ed. Pallas, under Domestication, vol. ii, 1868, pp. 39-41.

⁴ Mr. J. Emerson Turner, *Ceylon*, 1852, vol. ii, p. 274. For Malacca, *J. Journal of Indian Archipelago*, vol. p. 35.

the globe not having horns we may conclude that this was the primordial character of the group⁸

The horns of the reindeer are developed at a most unusually early age but what the cause of this may be is not known. The effect has apparently been the transference of the horns to both sexes. We should bear in mind that horns are always transmitted through the female and that she has a latent capacity for their development as we see in old or diseased females⁹. Moreover the females of some other species of deer exhibit either normally or occasionally rudiments of horns thus the female of *Cervulus moschatus* has bristly tufts ending in a knob instead of a horn and in most specimens of the female wapiti (*Cervus canadensis*) there is a sharp bony protuberance in the place of the horn¹⁰. From these several considerations we may conclude that the possession of fairly well developed horns by the female reindeer is due to the male having first acquired them as weapons for fighting with other males and secondarily to their development from some unknown cause at an unusually early age in the males and their consequent transference to both sexes.

Turning to the sheath horned ruminants with antelopes a graduated series can be formed beginning with species the females of which are completely destitute of horns—passing on to those which have horns so small as to be almost rudimentary (as with the *Antilocapra americana* in which species they are present in only one out of four or five females¹¹)—to those which have fairly level topped horns but manifestly smaller and thinner than in the male and sometimes of a different

⁸ On the structure and bedding of the horns of the reindeer *Alfred Russel Wallace* *Trans. Zool. Soc. Lond.* 1883 p. 513. Other mammals which have horns so small as to be almost rudimentary (as with the *Antilocapra americana* in which species they are present in only one out of four or five females¹¹)—to those which have fairly level topped horns but manifestly smaller and thinner than in the male and sometimes of a different

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shape¹²—and ending with those in which both sexes have horns of equal size. As with the reindeer so with antelopes there exists, as previously shewn, a relation between the period of the development of the horns and their transmission to one or both sexes: it is therefore probable that their presence or absence in the females of some species, and their more or less perfect condition in the females of other species depends not on their being of any special use but simply on inheritance. In accord with this view that even in the same restricted genus both sexes of some species, and the males alone of others, are thus provided. It is also a remarkable fact that although the females of *Antilocapra americana* are normally destitute of horns Mr Blyth has seen no less than three females thus furnished and there was no reason to suppose that they were old or¹³.

horns sometimes quite absent in the latter¹⁴. In several domestic breeds of these two animals the males alone are furnished with horns and in some breeds, for instance in the sheep of North Wales though both sexes are properly horned the ewes are very liable to be hornless. I have been informed by a trustworthy witness who purposely inspected a flock of the same sheep during the lambing season that the horns at birth are generally more fully developed in the male than in the female. Mr J. Leach observed his Lough sheep both sexes of which always bear horns, with hornless ewes and horned wethers. Shropshire Down and the result was that the male offspring had their horns considerably reduced whilst the females were wholly destitute of them. The several facts indicate that with sheep the horns are in much less firmly fixed character in the females than in the males and thus it is as usual to look at the horns as properly of masculine origin.

With the wild musk-ox (*Oribos moschatus*) the horns of the male are larger than those of the female and in the latter the horns do not touch. In regard to ordinary cattle Mr Blyth remarks. In most of the wild bovine animals the horns are both long and thicker

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FIG 63 Oryx capensis (from the Knowledge Menagerie)

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antl f m n lning d wnwards, are a g at
protection to th f head and th r p nts ar
lik use sed in ttack S Phil p Eg rt n lso

well-developed tusks though not so large as those of the male

These differences in the tusks of the several races and species of elephants—the great variability of the horns of deer as notably in the wild reindeer—the occasional presence of horns in the female *Antelope bicornis* and their frequent absence in the female of *Antelope americana*—the presence of two tusks in some few male narwhals—the complete absence of tusks in some female walruses—are all instances of the extreme variability of secondary sexual characters and of their liability to differ in closely allied forms

Although tusks and horns appear in all cases to have been primarily developed as sexual weapons they often

are likewise thus extracts the fatty naceous cores of palms in Africa he often uses one tusk always the same to probe the ground and thus ascertain whether it will bear his weight The common bull defends the herd with his horns and the elk in Sweden has been known according to Lloyd to strike a wolf dead with a single blow of his great horns Many similar facts could be given One of the most curious secondary uses to which the horns of an animal may be occasionally put is that observed by Captain Hutton¹ with the wild goat (*Capra argyrus*) of the Himalayas and as it is also said with the ibex namely that when the male accidentally falls from a height he bends inwards his head and by alighting on his massive horns breaks the shock The female cannot thus use her horns, which are smaller but from her more quiet disposition she does not need this strange kind of shield so much

Each male animal uses his weapons in his own peculiar fashion The common ram makes a charge and butts with such force with the bases of his horns that I have seen a powerful man knocked over like a child Goats and certain species of sheep for instance the *Ovis cycloceros* of Afghanistan² rear on their hind legs and then not only butt but make a cut down and a jerk up with the ribbed front of their scimitar shaped horns as with a sabre

Calcutta Journal of Natural History v. 1. 1813

p. 528
¹Mr Blyth *Land and Water* March 1867
p. 134 the ability of Capt. Hutton's ibex to rear on the hind legs and then not only butt but make a cut down and a jerk up with the ribbed front of their scimitar shaped horns as with a sabre
1869 p. 150.

When the *O cycloceros* attacked a large domestic ram who was a noted bruiser he conquered him by the sheer novelty of his mode of fighting always closing at once with his adversary and catching him across the face and nose with a sharp drawing jerk of the head and then bounding out of the way before the blow could be returned In Embrookshire a male goat the master of a flock which during several generations had run wild was known to have killed several males in single combat this goat possessed enormous horns measuring thirty-nine inches in a straight line from tip to tip. The common bull as every one knows goes and tosses his opponent but the Italian buffalo is said never to use his horns he gives a tremendous blow with his convex forehead and then tramples on his fallen enemy with his knees—an instinct which the common bull does not possess² Hence a dog who pins a buffalo by the nose is immediately crushed We must however remember

that when a female Cape buffalo (*Buffalus capensis*) was turned into an enclosure with a bull of the same species she attacked him and he in return pushed her about with great violence But it was manifest to Mr Bartlett that in

the short hair-covered horns which are rather longer in the male than in the female in a curious manner for with his long neck he swings his head to either side almost upside down with such force

they can possibly use their curved shape for horns thus the springbok (*Antelope*) has rather short upright horns, with the sharp points directed inwards almost at right angles so as to face each other Mr Bartlett does not know if they are used but suggests that they would afford a fearful wound down each side of the face of an antagonist The lightly-curved horns of the *Oryx capensis* (fig. 63) are directed backwards and are of such length that at their points reach beyond the middle of the neck, over which they extend in almost parallel lines Thus they seem singularly ill fitted for fighting but Mr Bartlett

²Mr E. M. Blyth *Natural History of the Cape* &c., *Annals des Sciences Nat.* tom. 1, 1823 p. 362

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to
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16 Pallas, *Speciebus Zoologica*, fasc. xiii, 1799 p

141 Lamont, *Seasons with the S a-Horse* 1861 p.

d nl to p n tl t g r to the grou d and in
consequ ce i dang rou to the r l r who is
liable t be y ked off tl l w dal "

V ry f w n al quadrupeds possess weapons
of two d tin t knd pec ally d pted f r
flgt g n th r n al m le. The m l muntjac
deer (*C rvol*) l r offers an xcept
as le i pro ded w l l horns and exerted
canine teeth. B t we m y n f r f om what
f ll that o e f m f we pon ha st n
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Th Cam lude ha e in add t n to tl r true
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n th f mal t all ak but the femal f
certain tl ant l pe and of ce ta n dee
l been k wn occa. alv t xl b t rud
m t f th se teeth.²² Stall ns ha e mall
can teeth which are tl quite abse t r
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ppe to be used flgt g fo tall lte
w l tl r incisors, and d n t open tl
m ths w l l k m ls and anacoes.
W l th ad it m l po sse an un
w flci nt wh l st the f male l as tl r
n m re rud m ts, w m y co l d th t
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pro ded w th flci t ca s, which f a e
bee partially transf rred to th f m les. Th
red t f th teetl m th mal seems to
ha f ll wed from som chang in thei man

also Falco (Pal nt M m nd v te l
1863, p 56) ca nes adult f m l dee l
ld males of th musk-dee tl ca es (P llas, *S y x*
Zoolog fasc. xi 1799 p. 18) som tum grow t h
le gth of three ches, h l st ld f males rudi-
m t projects scarc ly half inch abo the gums.

informs me both as to red-deer and fallow-deer that in fighting they suddenly dash together and getting their horns fixed against each other's bodies a desperate struggle ensues. When one is at last forced to yield and turn round the victor endeavours to plunge his brow antlers into his defeated foe. It thus appears that the upper branches are used chiefly or exclusively for pushing and fencing. Nevertheless in some species the upper branches are used as weapons of offence when a man was attacked by a wapiti deer (*Cervus canadensis*) in Judge Caton's park in Ottawa and several men tried to rescue him the stag never raised his head from the ground in fact he kept his face almost flat on the ground with his nose nearly between his fore feet except when he rolled his head to one side to take a new observation preparatory to a plunge. In this position the ends of the horns were directed against his adversaries. In rolling his head he necessarily raised it somewhat because his

now being modified through sexual and natural selection. A writer in an excellent American journal⁷ says that he has hunted for the last twenty-one years in the Adirondacks, where the *Cervus virginianus* abounds. About fourteen years ago he first heard of spike-horn bucks. These became from year to year more common about five years ago he shot one and afterwards another and now they are frequently killed. The spike horn differs greatly

of 10 or 200 feet and the attacked man was killed.⁸

Although the horns of stags are efficient weapons there can I think be no doubt that a single point would have been much more dangerous than a branched antler and Judge Caton who has had large experience with deer fully concurs in this conclusion. Nor do the branching horns though highly important as a means of defence against rival stags appear perfectly well adapted for this purpose as they are liable to become interlocked. The suspicion has therefore crossed my mind that they may serve in part as ornaments. That the branched antlers of stags as well as the elegant lyrate horns of certain antelope with their graceful double curvature (fig. 64) are ornamental in our eyes no one will dispute. If then the horns like the splendid accoutrements of the knights of old add to the noble appearance of stags and antelopes they may have been modified partly for this purpose though mainly for actual service in battle but I have no evidence in favour of this belief.

An interesting case has lately been published from which it appears that the end of a deer in one district in the United States are

⁷See a most interesting account of the American spike-horn deer in the paper by Judge Caton in the *American Naturalist* for 1869 p. 332.



FIG. 64. *Stag's head* (from *Scientific American* Zoology for 1869).

from the common antler of the *Cervus*. It consists of a single point more slender than the antler as I have said. It is not projecting forward from the brow as it terminates in a very sharp point. It gives a considerable advantage to its possessor over the common buck. He is enabled by it to run more swiftly through the thick woods and underbrush (very hunter knows that does and yearling bucks run much more rapidly than

⁸The *American Naturalist* Dec. 1869 p. 332.

CHAP. XVII SECONDARY SEXUAL CHARACTERS OF MAMMALS

from various sources. F mal dogs, m
sured t the sh ld r range from 8 ncl es,
hich is l w t 33 n 34 ncl sinle ght
and w ght from 80 po ds, w cl slght,
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poun

9 to 100 pound f r the mal and 0 for the
f male, could be saf r b t th re
reason to beli that f rm ly both sex s t
tained gre te w ght. M C ppl las
ghed p pps es wh n f tngt l d m n
w l t f f mal

From the name used in old legends, it ap-
pe rs as I hear f m Mr C ppls th t a
v ry anci nt period the males we e tl mo t
cel l ated the f mal s b g ment oned only
as tl th r of fam us d gs. Hence during
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be ch efly te ted f r tre gth ize peed
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f m As l we er the m l s do n t tta n
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th gre t qual ty b tween the sexes
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f s m ths ld and tl n th d g b g n
to increase g uing po th b t l s b th m
ght and size At b th and f se e l
eeks aft rward b tcl p ppy w ll ooc



FIG. 65 H ad f comm n old boar in prim
f lif (from B hm)

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ence mal d g g grow g t t re t l
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and ght t l f m ghtee t nty f ur
two ths ld whlst th f m les cease increasing
t ture t th g f f m n t f rteen
fifteen m ths, and ght t th a f
from tw l to fifteen month From th se
no tat m t t l th t tl f ll
diff re ce ze betw th m l and f mal
Scot h dee l und t acq red t l th
lat lif Th mal alm t lus ly are
sed f co rsing f as M M N ll n f ms
m th f males h t f t tre gth
and w ght to pull d wn f ll gro n dee

See also Richardso M al th D g p 59
Much aluabl f rm u th Scottish dee
bound g en by M McN ll, h first alled t
ten so t the equal ty are bet ee th se es,
Scripe Art of D er S all g I h pe th t M
C ppls all keep t h t t of p bl h g
full cou t nd history of this f us breed.

The mal s f som f w q adrupeds poss s
g n o p ts d l ped sol ly as m ans f
d f ce gainst th t tacks f th m l s
Som kind f dee use as w h e seen, th
ppe bra ch f th h rns ch fly
l ly f d f nding tl msel es and tl
Oryx ant l pe as I am n f med by M Ba t
l t t f nce m t k l f lly w th h lo g g ntly
ed h rns but th se are l k wise sed as
rg n f f nce Th sam bserv remarks
th t h ocero n fight g parry ch
oth s d l g bl ws w th th h m l ch
clatt l dly tog th as d th t ks f
boars Alth gh wild boars fight d p t l v
th y sold m accord g t B hm rece
f tal w unds as th bl w fall ach th
tusks n th lay f gnstlv kin co ring
th h ld lled by th G rman hunters
th sh ld and h re w h p t pe ally
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f lif (see fig 6) th t ks in th l w y w
are used fo fight g b t th y become in old
g as Brehm t t s, so m ch rved ward

and upwards over the snout that they can no longer be used in this way. They may however still serve and even more effectively as a means of defence. In common with the loss of those

laterally increase in old age so much in length and curve so much upwards that they can be used for attack. Nevertheless an old boar is not so dangerous to man as one at the age of six or seven years.²²

In the full grown male Babirusa pig of Celebes (fig 66) the lower tusks are formidable weapons like those of the European boar in the prime of life whilst the upper tusks are so long and have their points so much curled inwards sometimes even touching the forehead that they are utterly useless as weapons of attack. They more nearly resemble horns than teeth and are so manifestly useless as teeth that the animal was formerly supposed to rest his head by hooking them on to a branch! Their convex surface however if the head were held a little laterally would serve as an excellent guard and hence perhaps it is that in old animals they are generally broken off as if by fighting.²³ Here then we have the curious case of the upper tusks of the Babirusa

against their bases. Neither the upper nor the lower tusks appear to have been specially modified to act as guards, though no doubt they are to a certain extent used for this purpose. But the wart hog is not destitute of other special means of protection for it has, on each side of the face beneath the eyes, a rather stiff yet flexible cartilaginous oblong pad (fig 67) which projects two or three inches outwards and it appeared to Mr Bartlett and myself when viewing the living animal, that



FIG 66 Skull of the Babirusa pig (from Wallace's Malay Archipelago).

the lower tusks assume in a less degree and only during old age nearly the same form and then serve in like manner solely for defence.

In the wart hog (*Iliconotus aethiops* (fig 67)) the tusks in the upper jaw of the male curve upwards during the prime of life and from being pointed serve as formidable weapons. The tusks in the lower jaw are sharper than those in the upper but from their shortness it seems hardly possible that they can be used as weapons of attack. They must however greatly strengthen those in the upper jaw from being ground so as to fit closely

these pads when struck from beneath by the tusks of an opponent would be turned upwards and could thus admirably protect the somewhat prominent eye. I may add on the authority of Mr Bartlett that these boars when fighting take directly face to face

answers to the skull pad of the wart hog it has also two bony processes on the upper jaw above the nostrils. One of these processes the Zoologist Carden recently broke in the cage of the wart hog. They fought all night long and were found in the morning much exhausted but not seriously wounded. It is a singular fact, as showing the purposes of the above-described projections and processes, that these were covered with blood and were

Brehm Thet ben B ss. 723-32.
See Mr Wallace's rest of the account of this animal, *The Malay Archipelago*, 1869 vol. i. p. 433.

odours emitted and ornaments it will be convenient here to consider whether the sexes exert any choice in their unions. Does the female prefer any particular male either before or after the males may have fought together for supremacy or does the male when not a polygamist select any particular female? The general impression amongst breeders seems to be that the male accepts any female and this owing to his eagerness is in most cases probably the truth. Whether the female as a general rule indifferently accepts any male is much more doubtful. In the fourteenth chapter on birds a considerable body of direct and indirect evidence was advanced shewing that the female selects her partner and it would be a strange anomaly if female quadrupeds which stand higher in the scale and have higher mental powers did not generally or at least often exert some choice. The female could in most cases escape if wooed by a male that did not please or excite her and when pursued by several males, as commonly occurs she would often have the opportunity whilst they were fighting together of escaping with some one male or at least of temporarily pairing with him. This latter contingency has often been observed in Scotland with female red deer as I am informed by Sir Philip Egerton and others.⁴

It is scarcely possible that much should be known about female quadrupeds in a state of nature making any choice in their marriage union. The following curious details on the courtship of one of the eared seals (*Callorhinus u sinus*) are given⁵ on the authority of Capt. Bryant who had ample opportunities for observation. He says: "Many of the females on their arrival at the island where they breed appear desirous of returning to some particular male and frequently climb the outlying rocks to overlook the rookeries calling out and listening as if for a familiar voice. When changing to another place they do the same again."

As soon as a female reaches the shore the nearest male goes down to meet her making, meanwhile a noise like the clucking of a hen to her chickens. He bows to her and coaxes her

until he gets between her and the water so that she cannot escape him. Then his manner changes and with a harsh growl he drives her to a place in his harem. This continues until the lower row of harems is nearly full. Then the males higher up select the time when their more fortunate neighbours are off their guard to steal their wives. This they do by taking them in their mouths and lifting them over the heads of the other females, and carefully placing them in their own harem carrying them as cats do their kittens. Those still higher up pursue the same method until the whole pace is occupied. Frequently a struggle ensues between two males for the possession of the same female and both seizing her at once pull her in two or terribly lacerate her with their teeth. When the pace is all filled the old male walks around complacently reviewing his family scolding those who crowd or disturb the others and fiercely driving off all intruders. This surveillance always keeps him actively occupied.

As so little is known about the courtship of animals in a state of nature I have endeavoured to discover how far our domesticated quadrupeds evince any choice in their unions. Dogs offer the best opportunity for observation as they are carefully attended to and well understood. Many females

join a certain male as they are known to be in other cases where higher animals are concerned. Bitches are not always prudent in their loves but are apt to sing themselves away a score of low leggers. If reared with a companion of vulgar appearance they often prink up between the pair a devotion which no time can afterward obliterate. I have known a fox which really became of a more than romantic endurance. Mr. May⁶ who attended chiefly to the small breed is convinced that the female are strongly attracted by males of a large size. The well-known veterinary Blaine states that his own female pug dog became so attached to a giant and a few settled to a cure that in neither case would they part with a log of their own fire. Until several weeks had elapsed two similar and trust worthy accounts have been given me in regard

⁴Mr. Bryant's description of the habits of the red-deer (Cromy's *Proc.* 1861 p. 81) says: "It is tag and drag in the gill ground and the male is the sole guardian of the harem. It rises if trophy if it trophy. Exceedingly so much occurs with the see Mr. J. A. Allen's *Bull.* p. 100.

⁵Mr. J. A. Allen's *Bull.* p. 100. *Comp. Zoology* of Cambridge U.S. State L.S. No. 1 p. 20.

⁶Dog then *M. nager* nt. by F. M. J. W. M. H. C. V. 2. 1. 1861 p. 18. 192.

⁷Quoted by Alex. Walker *On the m. m. m.* p. 1838 p. 20 see two p. 244.

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SC L. M r t n, G neral Int od ctio to the Nat al
History of M mm. A iala, 1841 p 431
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CHAPTER XVIII

SECONDARY SEXUAL CHARACTERS OF MAMMALS—Continued

QUAETTES use their voices for various purposes, as a signal of danger as a call from one member of a troop to another or from the mother to her lost offspring, or from the latter for protection to their mother but such uses need not here be considered. We are concerned only with the difference between the voices of the sexes, for instance between that of the lion and lioness, or of the bull and cow. Almost all male animals use their voices much more during the rutting season than at any other time and some as the grass and port pine are said to be completely mute excepting at this season. As the throats (i.e. the larynx and the wind bodies) of stags periodically become enlarged at the beginning of the breeding-season it might be thought that their powerful voices must be somehow of high importance to them but this is very doubtful. From information given to me by two experienced observers, Mr McNeill and Sir I. Egerton, it seems that young stags under three years old do not roar or bellow and that the old ones begin bellowing at the commencement of the breeding-season at first only occasionally and moderately whilst they restlessly wander about in search of the females. Their battles are preceded by loud and prolonged bellowing but during the actual conflict they are silent. Animals of all kinds which habitually use their voices utter various noises under a strong emotion, as when enraged and repulse to fight but this may merely be the result of nervous excitation which leads to the periodic contraction of almost all the muscles of the body as when a man grinds his teeth and clenches his fists in rage or agony. No doubt some animals emit cries or notes of alarm at the least alarm but those with the more powerful voices, such as the lion and the stag, are better armed and more courageous would not panic and submit over their rivals.

It is possible that the roaring of the animal
be of some service to him in which I now
and the adversary for water carried the like
was even his name and this is said
tries to make himself a man as terrible as
possible. It is said that he is now dead

the bellowing of the stag, even if it be of service to him in this way, can have been important enough to have led to the periodical enlargement of the throat. Some writers suggest that the bellowing serves as a call to the female, but the experienced observers above quoted inform me that female deer do not search for the male, though the males search eagerly for the females, as indeed might be expected from what we know of the habits of other male quadrupeds. The voice of the female, on the other hand, quickly brings to her one or more stags, as is well known to the hunters who in wild countries imitate her cry. If we could believe that the male had the power to excite or allure the female by his voice, the periodical enlargement of his vocal organs would be intelligible on the principle of sexual selection, together with inheritance limited to the same sex and season, but we have no evidence in favour of this view. As the case stands, the loud voice of the stag during the breeding season does not seem to be of any special service to him, either during his courtship or battles, or in any other way. But may we not believe that the frequent use of the voice, and the iron excitement of the stalked and rage continued during many generations, may at last have produced an inherited stiffening of the vocal organs of the stag, as well as of other male animals. This appears to me, in our present state of knowledge, the most probable view.

[illegible]

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t n a l t s e h i n l g h t T l h o o d
u s b o i l e d w t h t l d m s c u l a r t
c a n b u l l t e d t l t m t l a n e q a l t h
h o l h a d z e T l m a l l r u t t i n g,

K. L. M r t n, *G n e r a l I n t r o d u c t i o n t o t h e N a t u r a l
H i s t o r y o f M a m m a l s*, 1841 p. 431
Naturgeschichte der Säugethiere P. G. u. y
1850, aa. 15-21

fight f r i s l y n t h e c e, a n d t h e r r o a r i n g s
s a i d t o b e s o m t i m e s s o l o u d a s t o b e h e a r d
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b l a d d e r i n f l a t e d a n d q u i e s S o m n a t u r
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n e d b t a r s o t h e u s e s h b e n a s
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t l P i t a I p e r c e i d t l a i t a i n t e d w t h t h e
o d f t l m a l C r r m p e t r i s t h l f

b r u n c e O b a t s, M r D b o o I r o c e d g f
t h Z o o l o g i c a l S o c i e t y 18 3 p 241

CHAPTER XVIII

SECONDARY SEXUAL CHARACTERS OF MAMMALS—Continued

QUADRUPEDES use their voices for various purposes, as a signal of danger as a call from one member of a troop to another or from the mother to her to t offspring, or from the latter for protection to their mother. But such uses need not here be considered. We are concerned only with the difference between the voices of the sexes, for instance between that of the lion and lioness, or of the bull and cow. Almost all male animals use their voices much more during the rutting season than at any other time and some as the gnu and porcupine are said to be completely mute excepting at this season. As the throats (i.e. the larynx and thyroid bodies) of stags periodically become enlarged at the beginning of the breeding-season, it might be thought that their powerful voices must be somehow of high importance to them. But this is very doubtful. From information given to me by two experienced observers, Mr McNeill and Sir I. Egerton, it seems that young stags under three years old do not roar or bellow and that the old ones begin bellowing at the commencement of the breeding-season, at first only occasionally and moderately whilst they restlessly wander about in search of the females. Their battles are prefaced by loud and prolonged bellowing, but during the actual combat they are silent. Animals of all kinds which habitually use their voices utter various noises under any strong emotion, as when enraged and preparing to fight but this may merely be the result of nervous excitement, which leads to the spasmodic contraction of almost all the muscles of the body as when a man grinds his teeth and clenches his fists in rage or sorrow. No doubt stags challenge each other to mortal combat by bell wing, but those with the more powerful voices, such as the American bison, the stronger better armed, and more courageous, would not gain any advantage over their rivals.

It is probable that the roaring of the lion may be of some service to him by striking terror into his adversary so when enraged he likewise erects his mane and thus instinctively tries to make himself appear as terrible as possible. But it can hardly be supposed that

the bellowing of the stag, even if it be of service to him in this way can have been important enough to have led to the periodical enlargement of the throat. Some writers suggest that the bellowing serves as a call to the female but the experienced observers above quoted inform me that female deer do not search for the male, though the males search eagerly for the females, as indeed might be expected from what we know of the habits of other male quadrupeds. The voice of the female, on the other hand, quickly brings to her one or more stags, as is well known to the hunters who in wild countries imitate her cry. If we could believe that the male had the power to excite or allure the female by his voice, the periodical enlargement of his vocal organs would be intelligible on the principle of sexual selection, together with inheritance limited to the same sex and reason but we have no evidence in favour of this view. As the case stands, the loud voice of the stag during the breeding season does not seem to be of any special service to him, either during his courtship or battles, or in any other way. But may we not believe that the frequent use of the voice, under the strong excitement of love, jealousy and rage, continued during many generations, may at last have produced an inherited effect on the vocal organs of the stag, as well as of other male animals. This appears to me, in our present state of knowledge, the most probable view.

The voice of the adult male gorilla is tremendous, and he is furnished with a laryngeal sack as is the adult male orang. The gibbon and among the newest of monkeys, and the Sumatra peaces (*Hylobates syndactylus*) is also furnished with an air sack but Mr Blyth, who has had opportunity for observation, does not believe that the males possess them. Hence the latter monkeys probably use their voice as a mutual call and this is certainly the case with some quadrupeds, for instance the blue and black gibbon, the

see for instance, Major W. L. King (*The Siam*) (London, 1866, pp. 23, 131) on the habits of the mouse and the deer.

(1) *A. American* of *Forest* of *the*, p. 60.
(2) *Trans. of the Zool. Soc. of London*, vol. x, 1869, p. 1.

mile to leeward of a herd and a silk handkerchief in which I carried home a skin though often used and washed retained when first unfolded traces of the odour for one year and seven months. This animal does not emit its strong odour until more than a year old and if castrated whilst young never emits it.¹⁰ Besides the general odour

antelope goats possess odoriferous glands in various situations more especially on their faces. The so-called tear sacks, or suborbital pits come under this head. These glands secrete a semi fluid fetid matter which is sometimes so copious as to stain the whole face as I have myself seen in an antelope. They are usually larger in the male than in the female and their development is checked by castration. According to De Meireux they are altogether absent in the female of *Antelope subgutturosa*. Hence there can be no doubt that they stand in close relation with the reproductive functions. They are also sometimes present, and sometimes absent, in nearly allied forms. In the adult male musk-deer (*Moschus moschiferus*) a naked space round the tail is bedewed with an odoriferous fluid whilst in the adult female and in the male until two years old this space is covered with hair and is not odoriferous.

is a singular fact that the matter secreted by this latter gland does not, according toallas change in consistence or increase in quantity. He gives, however only a conjectural and unsatisfactory explanation of its use.

In most cases when only the male emits a strong odour during the breeding season it probably serves to excite or allure the female. We must not judge on this head by our own taste for it is well known that

by certain essential oils, and cats by various substances far from agreeable to us and dogs, though they will not eat carrion, and roll on it. From the reasons given in discussing the voice of the stag we may receive the idea that the odour serves to bring the males from a distance to the females. Active long-continued use cannot here have come into play as in the case of the vocal organs. The odour emitted must be of considerable importance to the male inasmuch as large complex glands, furnished with muscles for everting the sack and for closing or opening the orifice have in some cases been developed. The development of these organs is intelligible through sexual selection if the most odoriferous males are the most successful in winning the females, and in leaving off proof to inherit their gradually perfected glands and odours.

Development of the Hair—We have seen that male quadrupeds often have the hair on their necks and shoulder much more developed than the females and many additional instances could be given. This sometimes serves as a defence to the male during his battles but whether the hair in most cases has been peculiarly developed for this purpose is very doubtful. We may feel almost certain that this is not the case when only a thin and narrow crest runs along the back for a creature thus kind would afford scarcely any protection and the ridge of the back is not a place likely to be injured nevertheless such crests are sometimes confined to the males, or are much more developed in them than in the females. Two antelopes, the *Taighaphus scriptus* (see fig. 6 p. 336) and *Lophoceros pictus* may be given as instances. When stags and the males of the wild goat are enraged or terrified the crests stand erect but it cannot be supposed that they have been developed merely for the sake of exciting fear in their enemies. One of the above-named antelopes, the *Lophoceros pictus*, has a large well-defined brush of black hair on the throat, and this is much larger in the male than in the female. In the *Ammodendron agrostoides* of the African family the fore-legs are almost concealed by an extraordinary growth of hair which de-

D. Gray. *Gleanings of the Mammals of*
 Knowl. p. 28.
 J. E. Cat. the waptin, T. and C. Otter
 4 d. v. t. S. or 1863, pp. 38 40 Blyth, Land
 and H. at n. C. J. ag. g. us, 186 p. 37

10 y f i t b r a t ~ ~ ~ p. 632.
 See Dr. Muir's observations on the segal in
 the Proc. Zool. Soc. 1860 p. 340 Desmarest. On
 the Antelope of the G. de la M. 1820 p.
 435.
 Pallas, *Sp. Zool.* 1811 p. 24.
 Desmarest, *D. Cl. Cl. d. Hist. Nat. t. m.* p.
 586.

bees and also whilst the female who acquires her adult tints earlier in life than the male, is dark grey above, the young of both sexes being of a deep chocolate colour. The male of the northern *Phoca groenlandica* is grey with a curious saddle-shaped dark mark on the back; the female is much smaller.

pure white, and can hardly be distinguished among the icy hummocks and even with their colour thus acting as protection.

With mammals sexual difference of colour occurs more commonly than in any other class.

on the throat, the white marks on the flanks, and the black spots on the ears all much more

fact, as evidence that the colouring of the Portia is of sexual origin, becomes obvious, when we hear that neither the red summum coat nor the blue winter-coat of the Virginian deer is at all affected by emasculation. With most or all of the highly-ornamented species of Tragelaphus the males are darker than the females, and their crests of hair are more fully developed. In the male of that magnificent antelope, the Dik-dik, an island the body is reddish, the whole neck much blacker, and the white band which separates these colours broader than in the female. In the Cape land also the male is slightly darker than the female.

In the Indian black buck (*Antelope cervina*) which belongs to the tribe of antelopes the male is very dark, almost black, whilst the female is of a brown-coloured. We meet in this species, as Mr Blanford informs me, with an exactly similar series of facts, as in the *Portia picta* namely in the male period calling changing colour during the breeding season, in the effects of masculinization on this change and in the young of both sexes being indistinguishable from each other. In the *Antelope cervina* the male is black, the female, as well as the young of both sexes, being brown in the young of the male is much brighter coloured than the hornless female and his chest and bell are blacker than in the female, the marks and lines

mal are nearly the same as those of the female only deeper and of a brighter hue. Other analogous cases could be added.

The banteng bull (*Bos banteng*) of the Malayan Archipelago is almost black, with white legs and bell-ticks; the cow is of a bright dun, as are the young males until about the age of three years, when they gradually change colour. The masculinated bull retains the colour of the female. The female kemas goat is pale and both the male and the female *Capra argus* are said to be more uniformly tinted than the male. Deer rarely present any sexual differences in colour. Judge Caton, however, informs me that in the males of the wapiti deer (*Cervus elaphus*) the neck, bell and legs are much darker than in the female but during the winter the darkest tints gradually fade away and disappear. I may here mention that Judge Caton has in his park three races of the Virginian deer which differ slightly in colour but the differences are almost exclusively confined to the winter or breeding-coat so that this case may be compared with those given in a previous chapter. I have added representative species of birds, which differ from each other only in

Tragelaphus. For the Cape land (*Oryx capensis*), see Andrew Smith, *Zoology of South Africa*, pls. 41 and 42. There are also many of these antelopes in the Zoological Garden.

(1) The female, see P. or Zool. Soc. 1860 p. 133. With respect to sexual differences, each there is equal sexual difference in colour, see Sir Baker, *The Albert Nyanza*, 1866, pl. 11, p. 627. For the female, see Gray, *Cat. B. Mus.* p. 100. Desmarest, *Mamm. France* p. 463, the female. Andrew Smith, *Zoology of South Africa*, pl. 11, fig. 1.

Dr. Murie, the Otaria, *Proceedings Zoological Society*, 1863 p. 1. Mr. R. Brown, the P.

female, of the Otaria, which there is splendid description of the Otaria, see the text. Tra-

under Domestication in concluding that any character even with animals kept by semi-civilised people has not been subjected to selection by man and thus augmented yet in the cases just specified this is improbable more especially as the characters are confined to the males or are more strongly developed in them than in the females. If it were positively known that the above African ram is a descendant of the same primitive stock as the other breeds of sheep and if the Barbuda male goat with his mane dewlap &c is descended from the same stock as other goats then assuming that selection has not been applied to these characters they must be due to simple variability together with sexually limited inheritance.

Hence it appears reasonable to extend this same view to all analogous cases with animals in a state of nature. Nevertheless I cannot persuade myself that it generally holds good as in the case of the extraordinary development of hair on the throat and fore legs of the male *Ammotragus* or in that of the immense beard of the male *Lithecia*. Such study as I have been able to give to nature makes me believe that parts or organs which are highly developed were acquired at some period for a special purpose. With those antelopes in which the adult male is more strongly coloured than the female and with those monkeys in which the hair on the face is elegantly arranged and coloured in a diversified manner it seems probable that the crests and tufts of hair were gained as ornaments.

pecially those found in the tropical region have the fur much brighter and more vivid at some seasons of the year than at others, and the fur of the male is generally brighter than that of the female.²⁰ Dr Gray informs me that he specified the African squirrels because from their unusually bright colours they best exhibit this difference. The female of the *Mus minutus* of Russia is of a paler and dirtier tint than the male. In a large number of bats the fur of the male is lighter than in the female.²¹ Mr Dobson also remarks with respect to the animals. Differences depending partly or entirely on the possession by the male of fur of a much more brilliant hue or distinguished by different markings or by the greater length of certain portions are met only to any appreciable extent in the friv-
olous bats in which the sense of sight is well developed. This last remark deserves attention as bearing on the question whether bright colours are serviceable to male animals from being ornamental. In one genus of sloths it is now established as Dr Gray states that the males are ornamented differently from the females—that is to say that they have a patch of soft short hair between the shoulders which is generally of a more or less orange colour and in one species pure white. The females on the contrary are destitute of this mark.

The terrestrial Carnivora and Insectivora rarely exhibit sexual differences of any kind including colour. The ocelot (*Felis pardalis*) however is exceptional for the colours of the female compared with those of the male are
moins apparentes le fauve étant plus terne le blanc moins pur les raies ayant moins de largeur et les taches moins de diamètre.²²
The sexes of the alligator *Felis mitis* also differ but in a less degree the general hues of the female being rather paler than in the male with the spots less black. The marine Carnivora or seals on the other hand sometimes differ considerably in colour and they present as we have already seen other remarkable sexual differences. Thus the male of the *Otaria nigrescens* of the southern hemisphere is of a rich

Colour of the Hair and of the Naked Skin.—I will first give briefly all the cases known to me of male quadrupeds differing in colour from the females. With marsupials as I am informed by Mr Gould the

are related. In the *Didelphis* opossum of Cayenne the female is said to be a little more red than the male. Of the rodents Dr Gray remarks African squirrels es-

¹ Osphinter's *Journal of Mammals* for 1863 vol. ii. On the *Didelphis* Desmarest, *Mammalogie* p. 208.

²⁰ *Journal of Mammals* for 1867 p. 325. On the *Mammalogie* p. 204.
²¹ *Journal of Mammals* for 1867 p. 241. Dr Gray on the *Mammalogie* 1820 p. 220. On *Felis* p. 101.

female however the nose at certain gular intervals of time becomes tinged with red

In all the cases both rto given the mal is more strongly or bright coloured than th female, and differs from th young f both sexes. But as with some f w birds t is th female which is bright coloured than th male so with th hesus m akey (*Macacus he us*) the female has lar surface of naked skin round the tail, of brilliant carmin red, which, as I was assured by th keepers th Zoological Gardens, periodically becomes n



FIG. 69 Head of male Mandrill (from German, Hist. Nat. d. M. m. fer.)

et more red and h face also is pale red. On the other hand, in th adult mal and the young, of both se (as I saw in th Gardens) neither the naked ki t the post no end of the bod no th face sh w trace f red. It appears, h w from some p blished accounts, that the male does occasionally during certain seasons, sh b t some traces of the red. Although he is thus less rnam nted than the female y t in th lar size of his body lar can teeth more d loped h uskers, more promine t superciliary ridges, he follow th commo rule of th mal ex celling the female.

I have n w g n all the cases kn wn to m of a difference in colour between th sex s of mammals. Some of these may be th result of ariat ns confined to on sex and transmitted to the sam sex, with ut any good being gained and th refore w th ut the aid of selecti n W ha e instances of this with our domesticated animals, as in the males of certain cats being rusty red whilst th f males are tort ise l ll coloured. Analo us cases occur in nature M Bartl tt has seen man black an t es of th jaguar leopard, vulpin phalang r and w mbat and h is ce tain that all, r u arly all these animals, were males. On the the hand with w les, f es, and pparentl American squirrels, both sexe are occasionally horn black. H nee t is quit possibl that w th

limited in th r transmissio \ ert h less t is mprobable that th d v rsified ad, and co trasted col rs of certain quadrupeds, f instance f th abo monk s and ant lopes, can thus be accounted for W sh uld bear n mind that th se col rs do n t ppear th mal t birth, b t only t o n ar maturity and th t unlik ordinary ariat ns, th v are lost if th mal be masculated. It is n the wh l probable that th t rongly marked col rs and oth r name tal haracte of mal quadrupeds are be ficial to th m n their n alry with th mal s, and ha conse q tl been acquired thro gh sexual selection. This vi w is stre th ned by th differences in colour between th se es occurring almost xclusi ly as may be collected from th pre us d tail, th se gro ps and ub-gro ps f mammals which present th and stro gly marked secondary sexual characters these bei likewise du to sexual selecti n. Quadrupeds manifestly taken tice f colour c S. Bale repeatedly observed that th African elephant and hincero tacked whit grey h rses with pecal fury I h lewh re sh wn th t half wild h rses ppar tly pref to pai with those of th sam colour and that h rds f fall w-dee of different colours, tho gh h rso to th ha long kept distinct. It is more significant fact that f male zebra w uld n t admit th addresses f mal ass until h was painted so as to re-

their breeding plumage.⁷ The females of *Cercus paludosus* of S. America as well as the young of both sexes do not possess the black stripes on the nose and the blackish brown line on the breast which are characteristic of the adult males.²⁸ Lastly as I am informed by Mr Blyth the mature male of the beautifully coloured and spotted axis deer is considerably darker than the female and the hue the castrated male never acquires.

The last Order which we need consider is that of the primates. The male of the *Yemur macaco* is generally coal black whilst the female is brown.

New World

Caraya are grey

in the second year the young male becomes reddish brown in the third black excepting the stomach which however becomes white black in the fourth or fifth year. There is also a strongly marked difference in colour between the sexes of *Myetes seniculus* and *Cebus capucinus* the young of the former and I believe of the latter species resembling the females. With *Ithecia leucocephala* the young likewise resemble the female which are brownish black above and light rusty red beneath the adult males being black. The ruff of hair round the face of *Ites marginatus* is tinted yellow in the male and white in the female. Turning to the Old World the males of *Hylobates hoolock* are always black with the exception of a white band over the brows the females vary from white brown to a dark tint mixed with black but are never wholly black.³⁰ In the beautiful *Cercopithecus diana* the head of the adult male is of an intense black whilst that of the female is dark grey in the former the fur between the thighs is of an elegant

the sexes is that the tail of the male is chestnut and that of the female grey but Mr Bartlett informs me that all the hues become more pronounced in the male when adult whilst in the female they remain as they were during youth. According to the coloured figures given by Solomon Muller the male of *Semnopithecus chrysomelas* is nearly black the female being pale brown. In the *Cercopithecus cynurus* and *griseociridis* one part of the body which is confined to the male exists of the most brilliant blue or green and contrasts strikingly with the naked skin on the hinder part of the body which is vivid red.

Lastly in the baboon family the adult male of *Cyncephalus hamadryas* differs from the female not only by his immense mane but slightly in the colour of the hair and of the naked callities. In the drill (*Clethrionomys*) the females and young are much paler coloured with less green than the adult males. No other member in the whole class of mammals is coloured in so extraordinary a manner as the adult male mandrill (*C. mormon*). The

hue with
is still
the face

is also marked with whitish stripes and is shaded in part with black but the colours appear to be variable. On the forehead there is a crest of hair and on the chin a yellow beard.

Toutes les parties supérieures de leurs crânes et le grand espace nu de leurs fesses sont également colorés du rouge le plus vif avec un mélange de bleu qui ne manque réellement pas d'élégance.³¹ When the animal is excited all the naked parts become much more vividly tinted. Several authors have used the strongest

²⁸ Ottua 1 ad 1 f s ne M y 21 1868 pp
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fully the eloped immense protuberances of bone are formed on each cheek which are deeply furrowed longitudinally and the naked skin over them is brilliantly-coloured as just described (Fig 69). In the adult females and in the young all these protuberances are scarcely perceptible and the naked parts are much less brightly coloured the face being almost black tinged with blue. In the adult

G H t \ t d M m fers 1844 p
103 1 gure r g n f th skull f the m f
M D t M log e p 0 G fr v t
H l r d P Cu H t N L des M m f t
1824 t m

female, however, the nose in certain regular intervals of time becomes tinged with red.

In all the cases hitherto given the male is more strongly colored than the female, and differs from the young of both sexes. But as with some fish it is the female which is brighter colored than the male, as with the chess sturgeon, *Megaceros nasus*, the female has a surface of scaled skin much like that of a brilliant carmine salmon, as I was assured by the keepers in the Zoological Gardens, permanently becomes even

I have now given all the cases known to me of a difference in colour between the sexes of mammals, some of these may be the result of variations connected to sex and transmitted to the same sex, without any selection, and therefore without the aid of selection. We have instances of this with our domesticated animals, as in the males of certain cats being rusty-red, while the females are buff or well coloured. These cases occur in nature. Mr. Bartlett has seen many black varieties of the paria leopard, the panther and wombat, and he is certain that all, or nearly all these animals were males. On the other hand, with many fishes, and apparently American squirrels, both sexes are occasionally born black. Hence it is quite possible that with some mammals a difference in colour between the sexes, especially when this is connected simply to the result of the aid of selection, or the occurrence of one more variation, which from the aid of sex is limited in their transmission. Nevertheless it is impossible that the difference in colour and constant colour of certain quadrupeds be transmitted. The male mouse and an ape can thus be accounted for. It would be in vain to say that these colours do not appear in the male at birth, but that as soon as maturity and the other secondary variations, they are lost if the male be emasculated. It is on the whole probable that the strongly-marked colours and other ornamental characters of male quadrupeds are lateral to those in the female, which latter males, and have consequently been acquired through sexual selection. This view is strengthened by the differences in colour between the sexes, coming almost exclusively as may be collected from the previous details, in those groups and sub-groups of mammals which present clear and strongly-marked secondary sexual characters, these being likewise due to sexual selection.

Quadrupeds manifestly take notice of colour. So. - Baker repeatedly observed that the African elephants and rhinoceros attached white grey horses with special care. I have elsewhere shown that many horses prefer to graze with those of the same colour, and that they always select the same colour, though living together have long kept distinct. It is a more significant fact that a male zebra would not admit the presence of a male as until he was painted, so as to re-



FIG. 63. Head of male Mandrill from Germany. (Nat. Hist. Mus. Berlin.)

more vivid, and her face also is pale red. On the other hand, in the adult male and in the young of both sexes as I saw in the Galapagos, neither the male nor the female had a trace of red in the face, nor a trace of red in the body. It appears, however, that in some putative animals, that the male uses occasional colour, certain sex is evident. Some traces of the red, however, he is thus less marked than the female, yet in the larger size of his body, larger canine teeth, more developed horns, more prominent superciliary ridges, he shows the common rule of the male exceeding the female.

*The Variation of Animals and Plants under Domestication, 1868, vol. 2, pp. 12, 123.

seem a zebra, and then as John Hunter remarks she received him very readily. In this curious fact we have instinct excited by mere colour which had so strong an effect as to get the better of everything else. But the male did not require this the female being an animal somewhat similar to himself was sufficient to rouse him.

In an earlier chapter we have seen that the mental powers of the higher animals do not differ in kind though greatly in degree from the corresponding powers of man especially of the lower and barbarous races and it would appear that even the

times seasonal and the tints of the naked parts sometimes become more vivid during the act of courtship. In both classes the male is almost always more vividly or strongly coloured than the female and is ornamented with larger crests of hair or feathers or other such appendages. In a few exceptional cases the female in both classes is more highly ornamented than the male. With many mammals, and at least in the case of one bird the male is more odorous than the female. In both classes the voice of the male is more powerful than that of the female. Considering this parallelism there can be little doubt that the same cause whatever it may be has acted on mammals and birds and the result, as far as ornamental characters are concerned may be attributed as it appears to me to the long continued preference of the individuals of one sex for certain individuals of the opposite sex combined with their access in leaving a larger number of offspring to inherit their superior attractions.

Equal transmission of ornamental characters to both sexes—With many birds ornaments, which analogously leads us to believe were primarily acquired by the males have been transmitted equally or almost equally to both sexes and we may now enquire how far this view applies to mammals. With a considerable number of species especially of the smaller kinds both sexes have been coloured independently of sexual selection for the sake of protection but not as far as I can judge in so many cases nor in so distinct a manner.

aims before the female and the elaborate manner in which this is performed by male birds and other animals is the strongest argument in favour of the belief that the females admire or are excited by the ornaments and colours displayed before them. There is however a striking parallelism between mammals and birds in all their secondary sexual characters namely in their weapons for fighting with rival males in their ornamental appendages and in their colours. In both classes when the male is

so complete as the resemblance. The hare on her form is a familiar instance of concealment through colour yet this principle partly fails in a closely allied species the rabbit for when running to its burrow it is made conspicuous to the sportsman and no doubt to all its prey by its upturned white tail. No one doubts that the quadrupeds inhabiting snowy regions have been rendered white to protect them from their enemies or to favour their teeming on their prey. In regions where snow never lies for long a white coat would be injurious consequently species of this colour are extremely rare in the hotter parts of the world. It de-

¹ *Esays and Observations by John Hunter* edited by J. H. N. 1861 p. 194.
² *Forster's Voyage to the North Pole* by J. H. N. 1867

³ *Fishes of the North Atlantic* by Audubon and B. H. N. 1846 p. 109.



FIG 70 *T. gelphu scriptu* male (from the *Knowley M. nageri*)

animals in the world the sexes of which cannot be distinguished by colour even by the dealers in wild beasts Mr Wallace believes³⁹ that the striped coat of the tiger so assimilates with the vertical stems of the bamboo as to assist greatly in concealing him from his approaching prey. But this view does not appear to me satisfactory. We have some slight evidence that his beauty may be due to sexual selection for in two species of *Felis* the analogous marks and colours are rather brighter in the male than in the female. The zebra is conspicuously striped and stripes cannot afford any protection in the open plains of South Africa. Burchell⁴⁰ in describing a herd says "their sleek ribs glistened in the sun and the brightness and regularity of their striped coats presented a picture of extraordinary beauty in which probably they are not surpassed by any other quadruped." But as throughout the whole group of the *Equidae* the sexes are identical in colour we have here no evidence of sexual



FIG 71 *D. m. l. pygga*, male (from the *Knowley M. nageri*)



FIG 70 *Tringalaph scriptus* male (from the *Kouley Menageri*)

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FIG 71 *Dromolopyga* male (from the *Kouley Menageri*)

³⁹ *Westminster Review* July 1 1867 p 5
⁴⁰ *Travels in South Africa* 1824 vol 1 p 315



FIG. 5 Head of *Ateles marginatus*.



FIG. 6 Head of *Cebus tricolor*.

we have additional evidence of the action of sexual selection the greater size and strength of the males, and in the greater development of their canine teeth in comparison with the females.

A few instances will suffice of the strange

manner in which both sexes of some species are coloured, and of the beauty of others. The face of the *Cercopithecus petrus* (fig. 77) is black, the whiskers and beard being white, with a defined round white spot on the nose coloured with short white hair which gives to

the animal an almost ludicrous aspect. The *Cercomphus fatus* likewise has blackish face with a long black beard, and a large naked spot on the forehead of a bluish white colour.

The face of *Macacus larotus* is dirty fawn coloured with a defined red spot on each cheek.

The appearance of *Cercopithecus* is grotesque with its black face white whiskers and collar chestnut head and a large naked white spot on each side.

In many species, the beard whiskers, and ears are of a different colour from the rest of the head and white different, are all of a light tint, being often prewhitened by the sun.

The white face of the South American *Brachyurus* is of a bright scarlet hue but this colour does not appear

until the animal is in maturity. The naked skin of the face differs widely in colour in the various species. It is often brown or blackish with

I observed this fact in the Zool. Acad. and many cases may be seen in the coloured plates in Geoffroy's Histoire and F. C.

Hist. Nat. de l'Amérique tom. 1, 1624.

B. de la. The Nat. Hist. of the Amazon, 1663, vol. 1, p. 310.



FIG. 77 *Cercopithecus petrus* (from Brehm).

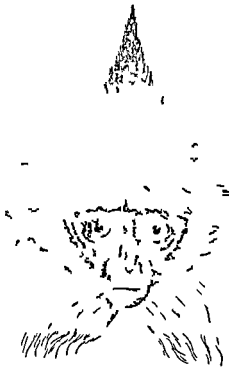


FIG 7 Head of *Semnopithecus rubicundus*. The head of the figure (from left to right) represents the head of the odd specimen and development of the head on the head.



FIG 3 Head of *Simia comatus*

tion made by Mr. Sclater well illustrates our ignorance of the laws which regulate the appearance and disappearance of stripes the species of *Simia* which inhabit the Asiatic continent are destitute of stripes, not having even the cross shoulder stripe whilst those which inhabit Africa are conspicuously striped with the partial exception of *Simia* which has only the cross shoulder stripe and generally some faint bars on the legs and this species inhabits the almost intermediate region of Upper Egypt and Abyssinia.

Quadrumanus—Before we conclude it will be well to add a few remarks on the ornaments of monkeys. In most of the species the sexes resemble each other in colour but in some as we have seen the males differ from the females especially in the colour of the naked parts of the skin in the development of the beard whiskers and mane. Many species are coloured either in so extraordinary or so beautiful a manner and are furnished with such curious and elegant crests of hair that we can hardly avoid looking at these characters as having been gained for the sake of ornament. The accompanying figures (figs 7 to 16) serve to shew the arrangement of the hair on



FIG 74 Head of *Callicebus*

to believe that the aboriginal horse was striped on the legs and spine and probably on the shoulders.⁴ Hence the disappearance of the spots and stripes in our adult existing deer pigs and tapirs may be due to a change in the general colour of their coats but whether this

without the aid of selection and it is inconceivable that they can be of use in any or

cause it is impossible to decide. An observa-

⁴The Variation of the male and female of the Domestication, 1868, vol. 1, pp. 61-64.

to both sexes. With many of the *Quadrumanus*,

⁴Proc. Zool. Soc. 1862, p. 164. See also Dr. Hartmann, Ann. d. Landw. Bd. 1, s. 222.

—The crest and tufts of the head, face, throat, and neck are brilliant, and are often of a different colour from the rest of the body. These characters have been acquired through sexual selection exclusively as ornaments.

many.—The law of battle for the possession of the female appears prevalent throughout the whole class of mammals. Most

however of certain Quadrumanans but be-
cepted for such parts, often oddly situated
are brilliant coloured in some species. The
colours of the male in the same species
to stimulate the will of the female
in battle the colours are diversified
tongues pronounced which they are not de-
veloped in the armament and when they
are in the act of combat we can hardly
tell the colour of the body but be-
cause red through sexual selection for the sake of
name and has been transmitted
to all almost exclusively to the sa-
se. Within both sexes are coloured in the same
manner and the colours are con- or
curiously arranged with the general last
appearance as protection, and expect
with the associated with armament
or the type of colour are led by analogy
to
h

of the same sex

for the battle certain in
generally the male be- g-cessful con-

the period of the mated by the male
during the breeding season the odorous
glands have been acquired through sexual
selection. With the same we can be

peculiar and varied colours, which
confine to the same recommendation to both sexes,
re

gro-
se —
it will be found to be of good service
back to the same case given in this and the
last chapter

The law of the equality of transmission of the
acts to both sexes, as far as colour and other
ornaments are concerned has prevailed far
more extensively with mammals than with
invertebrates, as in the case of the

all consequently has been transmitted to
the same sex. Various crests, tufts, and man-
ties of hair which are the confined to the
male are more developed in the sex than
in the female seem most apt to be re-
ornamental, though sometimes serving as
defence against the males. There are
so to suspect that the horns of the
lions, and the antlers of certain ant-
lopes, though properly serving as weapons of
offence defence has been partly modified
for ornament

males
the same of the kinds, the weapons

With the male differs in colour from the
female being generally darker and more
tinted with darker tints. We do not thus
class meet with the pig and red blood
and green tints, so common with male birds
and many other animals. The naked parts,

ance which has prevailed in all with equal
reputed the contest between the male and
the same sex the peaceful bloody law,
with the rare exception, has been confined to
the male so that the latter has been mod-
ified through sexual selection far more com-
monly than the female, the fight goes to
each the favouring the opposite sex.

parts perfectly white and often as black as that of the most sooty negro In the Brachyurus the scarlet tint is

and in several species it is blue passing into violet or grey In all the species known to Mr Bartlett in which the adult both sexes have strongly coloured faces the colours are due or absent during early youth This likewise holds good with the mandrill and Rhesus in which the face and the posterior part of the body are brilliantly coloured in one sex alone In these latter cases we have reason to believe that the colours were acquired through sexual selection and we are naturally led to extend the same view to the foregoing species though both sexes when adult have their faces coloured in the same manner

Although many kinds of monkeys are far from beautiful according to our taste other species are universally admired for their elegant appearance and bright colours The *Semnopithecus nemaeus* though peculiarly coloured is described as extremely pretty the orange tinted face is surrounded by long whiskers of glossy whiteness with a line of chestnut red over the eyebrows the fur on the back is of a delicate grey with a square patch on the loins the tail and the fore arms being of a pure white a gorget of chestnut surmounts the chest the thighs are black with the legs chestnut red I will mention only two other monkeys for their beauty and I have selected these as presenting slight sexual differences in colour which renders it in some degree probable that both sexes owe their elegant appearance to sexual selection In the moustache monkey (*Cercopithecus cephus*) the general colour of the fur is mottled greenish with the throat white in the male the end of the tail is chestnut but the face is the most ornamented part the skin being chiefly bluish grey shading into a blackish tint beneath the eyes with the upper lip of a delicate blue clothed on the lower edge with a thin black moustache the whiskers are orange

coloured with the upper part black forming a band which extends backwards to the ears, the latter being clothed with whitish hairs. In the Zoological Society's Gardens I have often overheard visitors admiring the beauty of an other monkey deservedly called *Cercopithecus*



FIG. 78. *Cercopithecus diana* (from Brehm)

diana (fig. 78) the general colour of the fur is grey the chest and inner surface of the fore legs are white a large triangular defined space on the hinder part of the back is rich chestnut in the male the inner sides of the thighs and the abdomen are delicate fawn-coloured and the top of the head is black the face and ears are intensely black contrasting finely with a white transverse crest over the eyebrows and a long white peaked beard of which the basal portion is black

In these and many other monkey the beauty and singular arrangement of their colours and still more the diversified and elegant

I have seen most of the monkeys of the
Zoological Society's Gardens. The description of the
Semnopithecus nemaeus is taken from Mr W C
Merrill's *History of the Mammals* 1841 p
460 b pp 47-53

SECONDARY SEXUAL CHARACTERS OF MAN

CHAP. XIX

or being fully developed within year in the woman, but not until three years in Egypt. The eyes of the negro are first blue and the hair chestnut-brown rather than black being cured only in the hands. The children of the Australians immediately after birth are bluish-brown, and become dark later. Those of the Guarany of Paraguy are bluish-brown but they acquire in the course of a few weeks the yellowish brown tint of their parents. Similar observations have been made in other parts of America.

It has been specified that regarding differences between the male and female sex in mankind because they are curiously like those of the *Quadrumanus*. With these animals the female is mature earlier than the male. That this is certain in the case of *Cebus* and *Ateles*. The males of most species are larger and stronger than the females. The fact that gorilla affords a well-known instance. Even in so trusting a character as the great prominence of the superciliary ridges the males of certain monkeys differ from the females, and agree in this respect with mankind. In the gorilla and certain the monkeys, the cranium of the adult male presents a well-marked sagittal crest, which is absent in the female and Eck found that of similar difference between the two sexes in the Australians. With the monkey which there is any difference in the voice that of the male is the more powerful. We have seen that certain male monkeys have a well-developed beard which is quite deficient, much less developed than the female. An instance is known of the beard, whiskers, moustache being large in the male than in the female monkey. Even in the colour of the

reddish. I have repeatedly observed this fact in England but two gentlemen have lately written to me saying that the African people are not so fair as the European.

Of the peculiarities (some of them have been accused of being his beard) I had been thus led to observe others in and were convinced that the exception was very rare. Dr Hooker alluded to this little point of difference in Russia, and found no exception to the rule. In Calcutta, Mr J Scott, of the Botanical Garden, was so kind as to observe that the man races of India to be seen there as well as in some other parts of India, namely two races of the Himalayas, the Booras, the Malays, the Burmese and Chinese, many of which are hairy. I find that where there was any difference in colour between the hair of the head and the beard the latter was invariably lighter. Now with monkeys, as has already been stated the beard frequently differs strikingly in colour from the hair of the head and in such cases it is always lighter, the hair being often pure white some times black or reddish.

In regard to the general amount of the body hair in man in all ages are less hairy than the monkey and in some few *Quadrumanus* the under side of the body of the male is less hairy than that of the female. Lastly male monkeys, like men, are bolder and fiercer than the females. They lead the troop, and when there is danger come to the front. We see how close is the parallelism between the sex in differences of man and the *Quadrumanus*. With some few species, I was with certain baboons, the rangers and the gorilla, there is a considerably great difference between the sexes, as in the size of the canine teeth in the development and colour of the hair and especially

almost always of light tint, being often

Pruner Bey negro is as quoted by V. L. Lectures on Man, E. G. translat., 1864, p. 179. Further facts of negro life, as quoted from W. Robertson and Camper see La renaissance. Lect. on Physiology & 122, p. 451. The life of the Guarany see R. Egger, *Recherches* de 3. See also Godron, *De l'Espece* tome II. 1859 p. 243. For the Australians, W. L. *Exposé et notes* de l'ethnologie E. Z. translat. 1863, p. 92.

See also *Recherches* de 1830, p. 49.

As *Macaca cynomolgus* (Deamarest, *Man* monographie p. 62), and *Hylotale pus* (Geoffroy St Hilaire and F. C. W. *Histoires Nat. de Madagascar*, 122, tome II, p. 2).

Anthropological Review Oct., 1868, p. 353.

Mr Blyth informs me that he has only seen one instance of the beard, whiskers, &c., in monkey becoming grey, though he says as so commonly the case in the human. This has never occurred. Aged *Macaca cynomolgus* kept in confinement whose moustaches were remarkably grey and human-like. Altogether this led me to key pressed ludicrous resemblance to the remaining monarchs of Europe after whom he was unusually nick-named. I certain races of man the hair of the head hardly ever becomes grey thus Mr D Forbes has never as he informs me seen instances with the Aymaras and Quechuas of South America.

This is the case with the females of several species of *Hylotales* see Geoffroy St Hilaire and F. C. W. *Hist. Nat. de Madagascar*, tome II. See also, *Ann. d'Hist. Nat. de Madagascar*, tome II. *Far Penny Cyclopaedia*, vol. II, pp. 149, 150.

Part Three

Sexual Selection in Relation to Man

and Conclusion

CHAPTER XIX

SECONDARY SEXUAL CHARACTERS OF MAN

With mankind the differences between the sexes are greater than in most of the Quadrumana but not so great as in some for instance the mandrill. Man on an average is considerably taller heavier and stronger than woman with squarer shoulders and more plainly pronounced muscles. Owing to the relation which exists between muscular development and the projection of the brow the superciliary ridge is generally more marked in man than in woman. His body and especially his face is more hairy and his voice has a different and more powerful tone. In certain races the women are said to differ slightly in tint from the men. For instance Schweinfurth in speaking of a negroess belonging to the Monbuttoos who inhabit the interior of Africa a few degrees north of the equator says: "Like all her race she had a skin several shades lighter than her husband's being something of the colour of half roasted coffee." As the women labour in the fields and are quite unclothed it is not likely that they differ in colour from the men owing to less exposure to the weather. European women are perhaps the brighter coloured of the two sexes as may be seen when both have been equally exposed.

Man is more courageous pugnacious and energetic than woman and has a more inventive genius. His brain is absolutely larger but whether or not proportionately to his larger body has:

In woman

base of the skull small

body rounder in parts more prominent and

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p 544

her pelvis is broader than in man but this latter character may perhaps be considered rather as a primary than a secondary sexual character. She comes to maturity at an earlier age than man.

As with animals of all classes so with man the distinctive characters of the male sex are not fully developed until he is nearly mature and if emasculated they never appear. The beard for instance is a secondary sexual character and male children are beardless though they have abundant hair on the

The female however ultimately assumes certain distinctive characters and in the formation of her skull is said to be intermediate between the child and the man. As in as the

tanned that race difference can be seen in the infantile skull. In regard to colour the newborn negro child is reddish but from which soon becomes slaty grey the black colour

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L t o M l g tra l t p 81
Schaffhausen 4th vol g Rev. or Oct p 429

colours full developed within a year in the case of the negro, but not until three years in Egypt. The eyes of the negro are at first blue, and the hair chestnut-brown rather than black, becoming black at the ends. The children of the Americans immediately after birth are velvety-brown, and become dark chocolate. Those of the Guarany of Paraguay remain black, but they acquire in the course of a few weeks the brownish-tan tint of our people. Similar observations have been made in other parts of America.

I have specified the foregoing differences between the male and female sex in mankind, because they are curiously like those of the *Quadrumanus*. With these animals the female is more hairy than the male, and has certainly the case in *Cebus*. The males of most species are large and stronger than the females, of which fact the *Peromyscus* is a well-known instance. Even in

reddish. I have repeatedly observed this fact in England, but two gentlemen have lately written to me saying that they form an exception to the rule. One of these gentlemen accords to the colour

sides of his lambs some of this peculiarity (one of them having often been accused of dyeing his beard), and had been thus led to observe that men, and were convinced that the exception was rare. Dr Hooker alluded to this little point for me in Russia, and found no exception to the rule. In Calcutta, Mr J. Scott, of the Botanic Garden, was so kind as to observe the man-races of men beside the female as well as in some other parts of India, namely two races of Siddis, the Bhojias, Hindoos, Birmese, and Chinese, most of which races have very little hair on the face and hair also found that when there was any difference in colour between the hair of the head and the beard the latter was invariably lighter. Now with monkeys, as has already been stated, the beard frequently differs strikingly in colour from the hair of the head, and in such cases it is also of a lighter hue, even oft pure white sometimes, brown or reddish.

In regard to the general hairiness of the body the women in all races are less hairy than the men, and in some few *Quadrumanus* the undersides of the body of the female is less hairy than that of the male. Lastly male monkeys, like men, are bold and fierce than the females. They lead the troop, and when there is danger come to the front. With us see how close is the parallelism between the sexual differences of man and the *Quadrumanus*. With some few species, however, as with certain baboons, the orang, and the gorilla, there is considerable great difference between the sexes, as in the size of the canine teeth in the dog, the shape and colour of the hair and eyes

agree in this respect with mankind. In the gorilla and certain other monkeys, the cranium of the adult male presents a strongly marked sagittal crest, which is absent in the female. And Eckstein found traces of a similar difference between the sexes in the Australians. With monkeys when there is any difference in the voice that of the male is the more powerful. We have seen that certain male monkeys have well-developed beards, which is quite deficient, or much less developed in the female. An instance is known of the beard whiskers, or moustache being larger in the male than in the female monkey. Even in the colour of the beard there is curious parallelism between man and the *Quadrumanus*. In the man when the beard differs in colour from the hair of the head, as is common to case in the beluga, almost always of lighter tint, being often

Prætor Beron on negro infants as quoted by V. G. Lacroix on *M. n. Eng. tra. nat.* 1864, p. 19. For facts on negro infants, as quoted from Wundt and Lacroix see Lacroix *Leet. on P. primæ*, de 1. 2, p. 431. For the infants of the Guarany, see Preger *Chirac. d. 3*, see also *Ann. de l'École. nat. 1863*, p. 43. For the Australians, W. J. Lacroix on *Physiology* *Etc. translat.* 1863, p. 99.

Preger *Chirac. d.* 1850, s. 42. In *Martens cynomorphus* (Denmarck, *M. m. m. p. 6*), and in *Hylodactylus* (Geoway *Illust. et P. Currier Histoire Nat. des M. m. p. 11* tota, l. p. 2).

Anthropology Review Oct., 1868, p. 353.

ever as he informs me seen an instance with the Aymaras and Quechuas of South America.

This is the case with the females of several species of *Hylodactylus* see Geoffrey St Hill and P. Currier *Hist. Nat. des M. m. p. 11*, tota. See also, *Illust. Penny Cyclopædia*, vol. ii, pp. 143, 150.

cially in the colour of the naked parts of the skin than in mankind

All the secondary sexual characters of man are highly variable even within the limits of the same race and they differ much in the several races. These two rules hold good generally throughout the animal kingdom. In the excellent observations made on board the *Noara*¹² the male Austrahans were found to exceed the females by only 60 millim in height whilst with the Javans the average excess was 218 millim so that in this latter race the difference in height between the sexes is more than thrice as great as with the Austrahans. Numerous measurements were carefully made of the stature the circumference of the neck and chest the length of the back bone and of the arms in various races and nearly all these measurements shew that the males differ much more from one another than do the females. This fact indicates that as far as these characters are concerned the male which has several races

Malay Archipelago who are nearly as black as negroes possess well-developed beards.¹³ In the Pacific Ocean the inhabitants of the Fiji Archipelago have large bushy beards whilst those of the not distant archipelagoes of Tonga and Samoa are beardless but these men belong to distinct races. In the Ellice group all the inhabitants belong to the same race yet on one island alone namely Nunemaya the men have splendid beards whilst on the other islands they have as a rule a dozen straggling hairs for a beard.¹⁴

most all the tribes a few short hairs are apt to appear on the face especially in old age. With the tribes of North America Catlin estimates that eighteen out of twenty men are completely destitute by nature of a beard but occasionally there may be seen a man who has neglected to pluck out the

The development of the beard and the hairiness of the body differ remarkably in the men of distinct races and even in different tribes or families of the same race. We Europeans see this amongst ourselves. In the Island of St. Kilda according to Martin¹⁵ the men do not acquire beards until the age of thirty or upwards and even then the beards are very thin. On the European Asiatic continent beards prevail until we pass beyond India though with the natives of Ceylon they are often absent as was noticed in ancient times by Diodorus. Eastward of India beards disappear as with the Siamese Malays Kalmucks Chinese and Japanese nevertheless the Amos¹⁶ who inhabit the northernmost islands of the Japan Archipelago are the hairiest men in the world. With negroes the beard is scanty or wanting and they rarely have whiskers in both sexes the body is frequently almost destitute of fine down.¹⁷ On the other hand the Lapuans of the

are informed by Mr D Forbes who particularly attended to this point that the Avimaras and Quechuas of the Cordillera are remarkably hairless yet in old age a few straggling hairs occasionally appear on the chin. The men of these two tribes have very little hair on the various parts of the body where hair grows abundantly in Europeans and the women have none on the corresponding parts. The hair on the head however attains an extraordinary length in both.

Amongst the sexes of the American aborigines do not differ so much from each other as in most other races. This fact is analogous with what occurs with some closely allied monkeys thus the sexes of the chimpanzee are not

¹² The results of the measurements made by Dr W. B. H. M. Sch. see *Revue der Naturgeschichte* 1867 s. 216 231 234 236 39 269
¹³ J. G. to St. L. (3 d. d. 17 J.) p. 97
¹⁴ J. G. T. D. L. G. Y. L. 1859 p. 107
¹⁵ Q. T. F. G. H. E. D. C. S. I. F. G. Aug. 29 1868 p. 630 V. G. L. C. M. E. G. T. an p. 12

On the beards of negroes V. G. T. Lect. d. p. 127 W. T. Z. *Introduction to Anthropology* E. G. L. N. L. T. 1863 v. I. p. 96 It is remarkable that the United States (I. G. T. O. T. M. L. Y. ad in

th. opol. g. I. St. L. f. Am. n. S. L. 1869 p. 569) th. p. d. g. d. th. d. ff. p. g. m. t. h. b. d. g. l. t. h. y. k. p. s. W. L. C. T. M. L. J. I. I. 1849 p. 15 D. J. B. d. D. O. R. 4 th. pol. g. I. R. x. A. 1. 18 12. 7. 30

SECONDARY SEXUAL CHARACTERS OF MAN

CHAP. XIX

is different as those of the orang gorilla.²² In the previous chapters we have seen that with mammals, birds, fishes, insects, &c., many characters, which there is no reason to believe were primarily gained through sexual selection by the sex, have been transferred to the other. As the same form of transmission has apparently prevailed in each with mankind, it would save useless repetition if we discuss the origin of character peculiar to the male sex together with certain characters common to both sexes.

As in the case of the *Canis* *terrestris* *bell* *causa*. In some of the North American Indians, the contest is reduced to a system. That excellent observer Harner²³ says — It has been the custom among these people for the men to wrestle for a woman to whom they are attached and, of course the strongest part always carries off the prize. A weak man unless he be a good hunter and well-beloved is seldom permitted to keep his wife that strong man thinks worth his notice. This custom prevails throughout all the tribes, and causes a great spirit of emulation among them, who are so all occasions, from their childhood, try their strength and skill in wrestling. With the Guanas of Soth America, Azara states that the men rarely marry till they are old, more so before that age they cannot co-quet their rivals.

Other similar facts could be given but need had no need in this had we might feel almost sure from the analogy of the high Quadrumania,²⁴ that the law of battle had prevailed with man during the early stages of his development. The occasional appearance at the present day of canine teeth which project also from the jaws, with traces of diastema or space for the reception of the prothelid canines, is in all probability a case for the

former state with the progenitors of man were provided with these weapons, like so many existing animals. Quadrumania. It was remarked in a former chapter that as man gradually became erect, and continually used his hands and arms for fighting with sticks and stones, as well as for the other purposes of life, he would have used his jaws and teeth less and less. This was, to tell the truth, his muscles, would then have been reduced through disuse as would the teeth through the not well understood laws of correlation and economy of

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difference between the orang and gorilla stands in close relation with the development of the immense and the reduction of the jaw and teeth in the early male progenitors of man must have led to a most striking and favorable change in his appearance.

There can be little doubt that the greater size and strength of man, in comparison with woman together with his broader shoulders, more developed muscles, rugged outline of body, his greater courage and pugnacity are all developed in part to inheritance from his half-human animal ancestors. These characters would have been preserved on the longages of man save

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would have insured the living a more numerous progeny than the less favored brethren. It is not probable that the greater strength of man was primarily acquired through inheritance of his having led hard than woman for his own subsistence and that of his family for the woman in all barbarous

²² See Azara, *Expedition*, &c. tom. ii., p. 94.

²³ On the fighting of the male gorillas, see Dr. S. A. see in *Boston Journal of Natural History* vol. v. 184, p. 423. On *Presbytis entellus*, see the *Indian Field*, 1849, p. 146.

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has long ceased. On the other hand the man, as a general rule, has to work harder than the woman for his own subsistence, and thus his greater strength will have been kept up.

which remain throughout life in the same quality. Thus, man has ultimate because superior to woman. It is, indeed, for that the law of the equal transmission of characters to both sexes prevails with man was otherwise it is probable that man would have become as superior in mental endowment to woman, as the peacock is in ornamental plumage to the peahen.

It must be born in mind that the tendency in character is acquired by the sex latent in him, to be transmitted to the same sex at the same age and of the acquired characters to be transmitted to both sexes, are rules which, though general, do not always hold. If the characters were good, we might conclude (but I have reserved in proper bounds) that the inherited effects of the early education of boys and girls would be transmitted equally to both sexes, so that the present inequality in mental power between the sexes would not be affected by a similar course of early training. It has, however, been caused by their dissimilar early training. I am, that a woman should reach the same standard as man, she must, when nearly adult to be trained in industry and perseverance and to have her reason and imagination exercised to the highest point and then she would probably transmit these qualities chiefly to her adult daughters. All women now could not be thus raised unless almost every man should marry those who called forth the most robust virtues were married and produced offsprings in larger numbers than other women. As before remarked of bodily strength, although men do not now fight for their wives, and this form of selection has passed with it during manhood, the general rule and general increase in order to maintain themselves and their families and this will tend to keep up and increase their mental powers, and as consequence the present inequality between the sexes.

Voice and Musical Powers—In some species of Quadrupeds there is a great difference between the adult sexes, in the power of their

voice. An observation by Agassiz bears on this subject. It is a remarkable circumstance that the difference between the sexes, as regards the vocal capacity, increases with the development of the race, so that the male European camel is more the female than the greyhound. We have confirmed this statement of Huxley from his measurements of the negro and German skulls. But Agassiz admits that on the whole, the male is more vocal than the female. Let me add, that the more observations are required, the more this position is confirmed.

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for the "arrests that prominent in the thyroid &c. which accompanies the elongation of the cords. With respect to the cause of the difference between the sexes, I have nothing to add to the remarks in the last chapter on the probable effects of the continued use of the vocal organ in the male and the excitement of the organ and the action of the cords. According to Sir Duncan Graham the voice and the form of the larynx differ in the different races of mankind but with the Tartars, Chinese &c. the voice of the male is said to differ so much from that of the female as in most of the races.

The capacity and love for singing or music though not a sexual character in man, must not here be passed over. Although the sounds uttered by animals of all kinds serve many purposes, in some cases can be made out, that the vocal organs were primarily used and perfected in relation to the propagation of the species. Insects and some of the wild birds are the lowest animals which invariably produce an sound and this is generally affected by the aid of the vocal organs constructed for the purpose.

The sound produced by man at some seasons cannot be made only by the male during the breeding season. All the air-breathing Vertebrata, necessarily possess an apparatus of inhalation and expelling air with a pipe capable of being closed to produce a sound which the primitive members of this class were strongly excited and their muscular contractions produced purposeless sound would almost certainly have been produced and these if they produced in an unproductive manner might readily have been modified or intensified by the preservation of properly adapted apparatus. The low

On the Anatomy of the Vertebrate, vol. iv, p. 603
The Journal of the Anthropological Society April 1869 pp. 1 and 171.
The "Cuddler Notes" Stridulation, in *Proceedings of the Zoological Society of London*, vol. xii, April, 1868.

are incessantly used during the breeding season and which are often more highly developed in the male than in the female. The male alone of

utter a of love of the same cry one knows how much birds use their vocal organs as a means of courtship and some species likewise perform what may be called instrumental music.

In the class of mammals with which we are here more particularly concerned the males of almost all the species use their voices during the breeding season much more than at any other time and some are absolutely mute excepting at this season. With other species both sexes or only the females use their voices as a love-call. Considering these facts and that the vocal organs of some quadrupeds are much more largely developed in the male than in the female either permanently or temporarily during the breeding season and considering that in most of the lower classes the sounds produced by the males serve not only to call but to excite or allure the female it is a surprising fact that we have not as yet any good evidence that these organs are used by male mammals to charm the females. The American *Myiodes caraya* perhaps forms an exception as does the *Hylobates agilis* an ape allied to man. This gibbon has an extremely loud but musical voice. Mr Waterhouse states³⁰ It appeared to me that in ascending and descending the scale the intervals were always exactly half tones and I am sure that the highest note was the exact octave to the lowest. The quality of the notes is very musical and I do not doubt that a good violinist would be able to give a correct idea of the gibbon's composition excepting as regards its loudness. Mr Waterhouse then gives the notes. Professor Owen who is a musician confirms the foregoing statement and remarks though erroneously that this gibbon alone of brute mammals may be said to sing. It then

from the analogy of other animals it is probable that it uses its musical powers more especially during the season of courtship.

This gibbon is not the only species in the genus which sings for my son Francis Darwin attentively listened in the Zoological Gardens to *H. leuciscus* whilst singing a cadence of three notes in true musical intervals and with a clear musical tone. It is a more surprising fact that certain rodents utter musical sounds. Singing mice have often been mentioned and exhibited but imposture has commonly been suspected. We have however at last a clear account by a well known observer the Rev S Lockwood³¹ of the musical powers of an American species the *Hesperomys cognatus* belonging to a genus distinct from that of the English mouse. This little animal was kept in confinement and the performance was repeatedly heard. In one of the two chief songs the last bar would frequently be prolonged to two or three and she would sometimes change from C sharp and D to C natural and D then warble on these two notes awhile and wind up with a quick chirp on C sharp and D. The distinctness between the notes was very marked and easily apparent.

for time yet she would keep to the key of B (two flats) and strictly in a major key. Her soft clear voice falls an octave with all the precision possible then at the wind up it rises again into a very quick trill on C sharp and D.

A critic has asked how

musical note

aerial simple vibrations of various periods each of which

the high importance of this power to all animals is admitted by every one—must be sensitive to musical notes. We have evidence of this capacity even low down in the animal scale thus crustaceans are provided with auditory hairs of different lengths which have been seen to vibrate when the proper musical notes are struck.³² As stated in a previous

fact on
p. 432

³⁰ *American Naturalist* 1871 p. 61.

³¹ *Illustrations of the History of the Birds of the United States* 1863 p. 187.

³² *Illustrations of the History of the Birds of the United States* 1863 p. 187.

M. R. R. n. *Pac. Zool. Soc.* 1868, p. 410

taught to do so thus a house parrow has learnt the song of a linnnet As these two species are closely allied and belong to the order of Insessores which includes nearly all the singing birds in the world it is possible that a progenitor of the sparrow may have been a

sons can be taught not only to speak but to pipe or whistle tunes invented by man so that they must have some musical capacity Nevertheless it would be very rash to assume that parrots are descended from

... for one purpose having been utilised for some distinct purpose Hence the capacity for high musical development which the savage races of man possess may be due either to the practice by our semi-human progenitors of some rude form of music or simply to their having acquired the proper vocal organs for a different purpose But in this latter case we must assume as in the above instance of parrots and as seems to occur with many animals that they already possessed some sense of melody

Music arouses in us various emotions but not the more terrible ones of horror fear rage &c It awakens the gentler feelings of tenderness and love which readily pass into devotion In the Chinese annals it is said Music hath the power of making heaven descend upon earth It likewise stirs up in us the sense of triumph and the glorious ardour for war These powerful and mingled feelings may well give rise to the sense of sublimity We can concentrate as Dr Schumann observes greater intensity of feeling in a single musical note than in pages of writing It is probable that nearly the same emotions but much weaker and far less complex are felt by birds when the male pours forth his full volume of song in rivalry with other males to captivate the fe-

male Love is still the commonest theme of our songs As Herbert Spencer remarks music arouses dormant sentiments of which we had not conceived the possibility and I do not know the meaning or as Richter says tells us of things we have not seen and shall not see Conversely when vivid emotions are felt and expressed by the orator or even in common speech musical cadences and rhythm are instinctively used The negro in Africa when excited often bursts forth in song another will reply in song whilst the company as if touched by a musical wave murmur a chorus in perfect unison Even monkeys express strong feelings in different tones—anger and impatience by low—fear and pain by high notes The sensations and ideas thus excited in us by music or expressed by the cadences of oratory appear from their vagueness and depth like mental reverberations to the emotions and thoughts of a long past age

All these facts with respect to music in an impassioned speech become intelligible to a certain extent if we may assume that musical tones and rhythm were used by our half-human ancestors during the season of courtship when animals of all kinds are excited not only by love but by the strong passions of jealousy rivalry and triumph From the deeply laid principle of inherited associations musical tones in this case would be likely to call up vaguely and indefinitely the strong emotions of a long past age As we have every reason to suppose that articulate speech is one of the latest as it certainly is the highest of the arts acquired by man and as the instinctive power of producing musical notes and rhythms is developed long down in the animal series it would be altogether opposed to the principle of evolution if we were to admit that man's musical capacity has been developed from the tones used in impassioned speech We must suppose that the rhythms and cadences of oratory are derived from previously developed musical powers We can thus understand how it is

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taught to do so thus a house parrot has learnt the song of a linnet. As these two species are closely allied and belong to the order of Insectores which includes nearly all the singing birds in the world it is possible that a progenitor of the sparrow may have been a songster. It is more remarkable that parrots belonging to a group distinct from the Insectores and having differently constructed vocal organs can be taught not only to speak but to pipe or whistle tunes invented by man so that they must have some musical capacity. Nevertheless it would be very rash to assume that parrots are descended from some ancient form which was a songster. Many cases could be advanced of organs and instincts originally adapted for one purpose having been utilised for some distinct purpose.³⁰ Hence the capacity for high musical development which the savage races of man possess may be due either to the practice by our semi-human progenitors of some rude form of music or simply to their having acquired the proper vocal organs for a different purpose. But in this latter case we must assume as in the above instance of parrots and as seems to occur with many animals that they already possessed some sense of melody.

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³⁰Simon the Baptist was persecuted by the
valuable report by Mr. Chubb, W. G. H. (1891)
Am. Nat. Hist. Soc. 1891. Th.

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— or as Richter says tells us of things we have not seen and shall not see. Conversely when vivid emotions are felt and expressed by the orator or even in common speech musical cadences and rhythm are instinctively used. The negro in Africa when excited often bursts forth in song another will reply in song whilst the company as if touched by a musical wave murmur a chorus in perfect unison.³¹ Even monkeys express strong feelings in different tones—anger and impatience by low—fear and painful high notes.³² The sensations and ideas thus excited in us by music or expressed by the cadences of oratory appear from their vagueness and depth like mental reverberations to the emotions and thoughts of a long past age.

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developed from previously developed musical powers. We can thus understand how it

to be in an entirely different world from the
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In one part of Africa the eyelids are coloured black in another the nails are coloured yellow or purple. In many places the hair is dyed of various tints. In different countries the teeth are stained black red blue &c. and in the Malay Archipelago it is thought shameful to have white teeth like those of a dog. Not one great country can be named from the polar regions in the north to New Zealand in the south in which the aborigines do not tattoo themselves. This practice was followed by the Jews of old and by the ancient Britons. In Africa some of the natives tattoo themselves but it is a much more common practice to raise protuberances by rubbing salt into incisions made in various parts of the body and these are considered by the inhabitants of Kordofan and Darfur to be great personal attractions. In the Arab countries no beauty can be perfect until the cheeks or temples have been gashed. "In South America as Humboldt remarks a mother would be accused of culpable indifference towards her children if she did not employ artificial means to shape the calf of the leg after the fashion of the country. In the Old and New Worlds the shape of the skull was formerly modified during infancy in the most extraordinary manner as is still the case in many places and such deformities are considered ornamental. For instance the savages of Colombia deem a much flattened head an essential point of beauty.

The hair is treated with especial care in various countries it is allowed to grow to full length so as to reach to the ground or is combed into a compact frizzled mop which is the Papuan's pride and glory. "In northern Africa a man requires a period of from eight to ten years to perfect his coiffure. With other nations the head is shaved and in parts of South America and Africa even the eyebrows and eyelashes are eradicated. The natives of the Upper Nile knock out the four front teeth saying that they do not wish to resemble brutes. Further south the Bakotas knock out only the two upper incisors which as Livingstone⁴⁷ remarks gives the face a hideous appearance owing to the prominence of the lower jaw but these people think the

presence of the incisors most unsightly and on beholding some Europeans cried out 'Look at the great teeth!' The chief Sebutani tried in vain to alter this fashion. In various parts of Africa and in the Malay Archipelago the natives file the incisors into points like those of a saw or pierce them with holes into which they insert studs.

As the face with us is chiefly admired for its beauty so with savages it is the chief seat of mutilation. In all quarters of the world the septum and more rarely the wings of the nose are pierced rings sticks feathers and other ornaments being inserted into the holes. The ears are everywhere pierced and similarly ornamented and with the Botocudos and Lenguas of South America the hole is gradually so much enlarged that the lower edge touches the shoulder. In North and South America and in Africa either the upper or lower lip is pierced

a curious account of the shame felt by a South American native and of the ridicule which he

rate the lower lip and wear a crystal which from the movement of the tongue has a wriggling motion indeseably ludicrous during conversation. The wife of the chief of Latooka told Sir S. Baker⁴⁸ that Lady Baker would be much improved if she would extract her four front teeth from the lower jaw and wear the long pointed polished crystal in her under lip. Further south still the Makas⁴⁹

project two inches beyond the tip of the nose and when the lady smiled the contraction of the muscles elevated it over her eyes. Why do the women wear these things the venerable chief Chinsudi was asked. Evidently surprised at such a stupid question he replied 'For beauty! They are the only beautiful things women have men have beards women have none. What kind of a person would she be without the *jelele*? She would not be a woman at all with a mouth like a man but no beard.'

Hardly any part of the body which can be

The Illust. N. Y. N. A. 1860 v. 1, p. 217
Livingstone Brit. A. Association, 1860 report
given in the Athenæum July 7 1860 p. 29

⁴⁷ *The Nile Tributaries 1867 The Illust. N. Y. N. A.*

According to Madame T'siffre a beauty. A man of Cochon China spoke with contempt of the wit of the English Ambassador that she had but teeth like a dog and a rosy colour like that of potato-flour. We have seen that the Chinese dislike our white linen, and that the Americans admire at way hide. In S. America, the Murucas, who are little

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¹⁰For the Javan and Cochino-Chinese see Wait
Introduction to Anthropology E.g. transl. L. 1.
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Prichard, Physical History of Mankind vol. 5
ed. p. 46
North America Indians by G. Catlin, 3rd ed.
1812, vol. p. 42 L. p. 227 O th nat. res.
Vancouver. Also d. see prout, Science and stud
of crup. Lif. 1866, p. 23 On the Indians of Pa
guay Azara, & y. geol. m. u., p. 100.

"For the Javan and Cochino-Chinese see Waite, *Introduction to Anthropology* E. G. transl. L. I., p. 303. On the Yucatan, see D. Orberg, *Yucatan*, p. 10. Prichard, *Physical History of Mankind* 4th ed. p. 46.

North America Indians by G. Catlin, 3rd ed., 1812, vol. p. 49, l. p. 227. On the natives of Yucatan, see D. Orberg, *Yucatan*, p. 10. Prichard, *Physical History of Mankind* 4th ed. p. 46.

SECONDARY SEXUAL CHARACTERS OF MAN

Ch p xix

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a t i o n, l p 214 l p 240

qui en p a m e t h

I have met with very few statements opposed to this conclusion Mr Winwood Reade however who has had ample opportunities for observation not only with the negroes of the west coast of Africa but with those of the interior who have never associated with Europeans is convinced that their ideas of beauty are on the whole the same as ours and Dr Rohlf writes to me to the same effect with respect to Bornu and the countries inhabited by the Pullo tribes Mr Reade found that he agreed with the negroes in their estimation of the beauty of the native girls and that their appreciation of the beauty of European women corresponded with ours They admire long hair and use artificial means to make it appear abundant they admire also a beard though themselves very scantily provided Mr Reade feels doubtful what kind of

The skull has been greatly modified during ancient and modern times by many nations and there can be little doubt that this has been practised especially in N and S America, in order to exaggerate some natural and admired peculiarity Many American Indians are known to admire a head so extremely flattened as to appear to us idiotic. The natives on the north western coast compress the head into a pointed cone and it is their constant practice to gather the hair into a knot on the top of the head for the sake as Dr Wilson remarks of increasing the apparent elevation of the favourite conoid form The inhabitants of Arakhan admire a broad smooth forehead and in order to produce it they fasten a plate of lead on the heads of the new born children On the other hand a broad well rounded occiput is considered a great beauty by the natives of the Ili Islands

As with the skull so with the nose the ancient Huns during the age of Attila were accustomed to flatten the noses of their infants with bandage for the sake of exaggerating a natural conformation With the Tahitian to be called long nose is considered as an insult and they compress the noses and foreheads of their children for the sake of beauty The same holds with the Malays of Sumatra, the Hottentots, certain Negroes and the natives of Brazil The Chinese have by nature unusually small feet and it is well known that the women of the upper classes distort their feet to make them still smaller Lastly Humboldt thinks that the American Indians prefer colouring their bodies with red paint

never bear in mind that the depressed broad noses and projecting jaws of the negroes of the west coast are exceptional types with the inhabitants of Africa Notwithstanding the foregoing statements Mr Reade admits that negroes do not like the colour of our skin they look on blue eyes with aversion and they think our noses too long and our lips too thin He does not think it probable that negroes would ever prefer the most beautiful European woman on the mere grounds of physical admiration to a good looking negro

The general truth of the principle long ago insisted on by Humboldt that man admires and often tries to exaggerate whatever character nature may have given him is shown in many ways The negro

may be doubted whether barbarous nations have generally had any such intention in painting themselves

In the fashions of our own dress we see ex

On the 11th of the month of June 1864 I visited the Type f M kind vol 1 440 1 inch rd Physiol Hist of f M kind vol 3rd d p 321 on the at c f Ar kh n bud v l p 337 Wls n Physiol Ed nol gy 4th time us I t tu ti 1863 p 288 nth F J us, p 290 Sur J I b b k (P chi tori T m 2 d d 1869 p 06) gives celle tr sum this ubj ct On the 11th Codr n D F E p 1839 p 300 On the T h t us Wa ts Anth pol gy E g transl v l p 303 M rd n qu ted by I rich ard I ky Hist f M kind 3rd ed t v l p 67 La rence Lect s o Physiology p 337 Th f t was asc rta ed nth Rcu der Anth opolog Thel Dr W isbach 1867 s 263

Personal V r r t r Eng tr sl t v l v p 518 and el wh e Ma teg z a, n his Viaggi e Studi, strongly insists in this same principle.

CHAPTER XX

SECONDARY SEXUAL CHARACTERS OF MAN—Continued

WE have seen in the last chapter that with all barbarous races ornaments, dress and external appearance are highly valued and that the men judge of the beauty of their women by widely different standards. We must next inquire whether this preference and the consequent selection during many generations of those women which appear to the men of each race the most attractive has altered the character either of the females alone or of both sexes. With mammals the general rule appears to be that characters of all kinds are inherited equally by the males and female: we might therefore expect that with mankind any char-

acter would be the weal or woe of any one individual but that of the human race to come which is here at stake.

There is however reason to believe that in certain civilised and semi-civilised nations sexual selection has effected something in modifying the bodily frame of some of the members. Many persons are convinced as it appears to me with justice that our aristocracy including under this term all wealthy families in which primogeniture has long prevailed from having chosen during many generations from all classes the more beautiful women as their wives have become land

certain that the different races would be differently modified as each has its own standard of beauty.

With mankind especially with savages many causes interfere with the action of sexual selection as far as the bodily frame is concerned. Civilised men are largely attracted by the mental charms of women by their wealth and especially by their social position for men rarely marry into a much lower rank. The men who succeed in obtaining the more beautiful women will not have a better chance of leaving a long line of descendants than other men with

namely of the more attractive men women although in civilised nations women have free or almost free choice which is not the case with barbarous races yet their choice is largely influenced by the social position and wealth of the men and the success of the latter in life depends much on their intellectual power and on the fruit of these same

for as remarks the final aim of all love must be they come or tragic is really of more importance than all other end in human life. What it all turns upon is nothing less than the composition of the next generation. It is

of life for the perfect development of. Cook remarks that the superiority in personal appearance which is observable in the crees or noble in all the other islands (of the Pacific) is found in the Sandwich Islands but this may be chiefly due to their better food and manner of life.

The old traveller Chardin in describing the Persians says their blood is now highly refined by mixtures with the

is hardly a man of rank in Persia born of a Georgian or Circassian mother. He adds that they inherit their beauty not from their ancestors for without the above mixture the men of rank in Persia who are descendants of the Tartars would be extremely ugly. Here is a more curious case the priestesses who attended the temple of Venus Ervina at San Giuliano in Sicily were selected for their beauty out of the whole of Greece they were not vestal virgins and Quatrefages who states the foregoing fact says that the women of San Giuliano are now

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that social th chimpanzee for instance, is occasionally met with in large bands. Again, other species are polygamous, but several males, each with his own female, is associated in body as with several peacocks of taboons. We may indeed conclude from what we know of the polygamy of all male quadrupeds, armed, as many of them are with special weapons for fighting with their rivals, that promiscuous intercourse as a natural feature is extremely improbable. The pair may maintain itself for life, but only for a short time yet if the males which are the strongest and best able to defend themselves assist their females and young, were to select the more attractive females, this would suffice for sexual selection.

Therefore, looking far enough back in the stream of time, and judging from the social habits of man as he now exists, the most probable view is that he aboriginally lived in small communities, each with a single wife, if possible with several, whom he jealously guarded against all other men. One may not have been a social animal, and yet have lived with several wives, like the gorilla. All the natural gregariousness of the adult male is seen in hand when the young male grows up a co-test takes place of matrimony and the strongest, by killing and driving out the others, establishes himself as the head of the community. The young males, being thus expelled and wandering about, would, when the last successful in finding a partner, prevent too close breeding within the limits of the same family.

renew themselves

that death alone can separate husband and wife. An intelligent Kandyian chief of course a polygamist, was perfectly scandalised at the utter barbarism of living with only one wife and never parting until separated by death. It was, he said, just like the Wandaoba men. "Whether so ages ago now entered into some form of marriage, their polygamous monogamy, has retained this habit from primeval times, whether they returned to some form of marriage after passing through stages of promiscuous intercourse I will not pretend to conjecture.

If noticide.—This practice is now everywhere common throughout the world and there is reason to believe that it prevailed much more than it does during former times. Barbarians find it difficult to support themselves and their children, and it is a simple plan to kill their infants. In South America some tribes, according to Azara, formerly destroyed so many infants of both sexes that they were on the point of extinction. In the Polynesian Islands women have been known to kill from fear or fidelity ten of their children and Ellis could not find a single man who had not killed at least one. In a village on the eastern front of India Colonel MacCulloch found not more than a few male children. While infants are prevented the struggle for existence will be in so far less severe, and all the members of the tribe will have an almost equally good chance of rearing their few surviving children. In most cases a large number of female than of male infants are destroyed. It is because that the latter are more valuable to the tribe, will when grown produce offspring.

disseminated nations. Polygamists as just seen, almost universally need both the leading male and the reserve males. There are tribes, standing almost at the bottom of the scale, which are strictly monogamous. This is the case with the Vedda of Ceylon, they have a single, according to Sir J. Lubbock,

Brehm (*Illustrations Thierleben*, B. 1, p. 77) says Cynocephalus hamadryas lives in great troops containing twice as many adult females as adult males. See Hensge (*American polygamous species*, and Owen (*Anatomy of Vertebrates*, vol. iii. p. 16) American monogamous species. Other references might be added.

Dr. Saegert, in *Boston Journal of Natural History*, vol. 1845-6, p. 423.
Dr. Huxley, *Text*, 1869, p. 423.

high time to settle them with the happy fate, are assigned by the women to the males, and by arrangement, as additional males, infanticide.

When, wing to female infanticide the Rev. M. Lennan, *Primitive Marriage*, 1863. See especially *gamy and infanticide*, pp. 180, 183.

this book, correct quotation from it was unfortunately given the boy passage and has been removed from the text.

phants for a long time. Accordingly in many cases the lines of descent are traced through the mother alone to the exclusion of the father. But in other cases the terms employed express a connection with the tribe alone to the exclusion even of the mother. It seems possible that the connection between the related members of the same barbarous tribe exposed to all sorts of danger

use of terms expressive of the former relationships but Mr Morgan is convinced that this view is by no means sufficient.

The terms of relationship used in different parts of the world may be divided according to the author just quoted into two great classes the classificatory and descriptive—the latter being employed by us. It is the classificatory system which so strongly leads to the belief that communal and other extremely loose forms of marriage were originally universal. But as far as I can see there is no necessity on this ground for believing in absolutely promiscuous intercourse and I am glad to find that this is Sir J Lubbock's view. Men and women like many of the lower animals might formerly have entered into strict though temporary unions for each birth and in this case nearly as much confusion would have arisen in the terms of relationship as in the case of promiscuous intercourse. As far as sexual selection is concerned all that is required is that choice should be exerted before the parents unite and it signifies little whether the unions last for life or only for a season.

Besides the evidence derived from the terms of relationship other lines of reasoning indicate the former wide prevalence of communal marriage. Sir J Lubbock accounts for the strange and widely extended habit of exogamy—that is the men of one tribe taking wives from a distinct tribe—by communism having been the original form.

also thus understand the necessity of expiation for marriage as an infringement of tribal rites since according to old ideas a man had no right to appropriate to him self that which belonged to the whole tribe. Sir J Lubbock further gives a curious list of facts shewing that in old times high honour was bestowed on women who were utterly licentious and this, as he explains is intelligible if we admit that promiscuous intercourse was the aboriginal and therefore long revered custom of the tribe.

Although the manner of development of the marriage tie is an obscure subject as we may infer from the divergent opinions on several points between the three authors who have studied it most closely namely Mr Morgan, Mr M Lennan and Sir J Lubbock yet from the foregoing and several other lines of evidence it seems probable that the habit of marriage in any strict sense of the word has been gradually developed and that almost promiscuous or very loose intercourse was once extremely common throughout the world. Nevertheless from the strength of the feeling of jealousy all through the animal kingdom as well as from the analogy of the lower animals more particularly of those which come nearest to man I cannot believe that absolutely promiscuous intercourse prevailed in times past shortly before man attained to his present rank in the zoological scale. Man as I have attempted to shew is certainly descended from some ape like creature. With the existing *Quadrumanæ* as far as their habits are known the males of some species are monogamous but live during only a part of the year with the females. If this the orang seems to afford an instance. Several kinds for example some of the Indian and American monkeys are strictly monogamous and associate all the year round with their wives. Others are polygamous for example the gorilla and several American species and each family lives separate. Even when this occurs the families inhabiting the same district are probably some

Thus the practice of capturing wives might have arisen and from the honour so gained it might ultimately have become the universal habit. According to Sir J Lubbock we can

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what social the chimpanzee for instance is occasionally met with in large bands. Again, other species are polygamous, but several males, each with his own female, are associated in bands as with several species of monkeys. We may indeed conclude from what we know of the jealousy of all male quadrupeds, armed, as many of them are with special weapons for battling with their rivals, that promiscuous intercourse in a state of nature is extremely improbable. The pair may not last for life, but only for each birth, but still the males which are the strongest and best able to defend or otherwise assist their females and to select the most attractive females, thus would suffice for sexual selection.

Therefore, looking far back in the stream of time, and judging from the social habits of man as he now exists, the most probable view is that he aboriginally lived in small communities, each with single wife, if powerful with several, whom he jealously guarded against all other males. One may not have been a social animal, and yet have lived with several wives, like the gorilla. For all the tales agree that the adult male is seen in a band when the young male grows up, a contest takes place for mastery and the strongest, by killing and driving out the others, establishes himself as the head of the community. The younger males, being thus expelled and wandering about, would, when at last successful in finding a partner, prevent too close interbreeding within the limits of the same family.

Although savages are now extremely licentious, and although communal marriage may formerly have largely prevailed, yet many tribes practise some form of marriage, but of far more lax nature than that of civilized nations. Polygamy, as just stated, is almost universally followed by the leading men in every tribe. Not less there are tribes, standing almost at the bottom of the scale, which are strictly monogamous. This is the case with the Vedda of Ceylon, they have saving, according to Sir J. Lubbock,

that death alone can separate husband and wife. An intelligent hand vanishes of course a polygamist, "was perfectly scandalised at the utter barbarism of living with only one wife and never parting until separated by death. It was, he said, just like the Wandoo monk. Why then, says a man who now enters into some form of marriage, the polygamist, more monogamous, has retained this habit from primitive times, on which the husband returned to some form of marriage after passing through a stage of promiscuous intercourse, I will not pretend to conjecture.

If not true—This practice is now everywhere common through the world, and the reason to believe that it prevailed in the remote past is during former times. Barbarians find it difficult to support mothers and their children, and it is a simple plan to kill their infants. In South American some tribes, according to Azara, formerly destroyed so many infants of both sexes that they were on the point of extinction. In the Polynesian Islands women have been known to kill from infancy to a nation of their children and Ellis could not find a single man who had not killed at least one. In a village on the western front of India Colonel MacCulloch found not a single male child. Where infanticide prevails the true equality of sex will be in so far less secure and all the members of the tribe will have an almost equally good chance of rearing their few surviving children. In most cases a large number of female than male infants are destroyed, for it is obvious that the latter are of more value to the tribe, as they will, when grown up, aid in defending it, and can support themselves. But the trouble experienced by the women in rearing

is natural motives for infanticide.

When, owing to female infanticide, the number of males is small, M'Lennan, *Primitive Marriage* 1865. See especially on polygamy and infanticide pp. 130, 138, 162.

Dr Gerland (*Über das Aussterben der Natur* 1865) has collected much information on infanticide, see especially pp. 31, 54. Azara (*Foyage, d'Amérique*, pp. 94, 116) enters detail the motives. See also M'Lennan (*ibid.* p. 139) for cases in India. In the former reprints of the 2nd edition of this book an incorrect quotation from G. G. G. was unfortunately given in the above passage and has now been removed from the text.

*Brehm (*Die Naturgeschichte der Thiere*, B. 1, p. 1) says "Cypro, *Antelope* lives in great troops containing twice as many adult females as adult males. See Bennett on American polygamous species, and Owen (*Anatomy of Vertebrates*, cl. iii, p. 16) American monogamous species. Other references must be added.

Dr Savage, in *Eastern Journal of Natural History*, cl. 1843-4 p. 423.
Pridmore, *Times*, 1862 p. 424.

women of a tribe were few the habit of capturing wives from neighbouring tribes would naturally arise Sir J Lubbock however as we have seen attributes the practice in chief part to the former existence of communal marriage and to the men having consequently captured women from other tribes to hold as their sole property Additional causes might be assigned such as the communities being very small in which case marriageable women would often be deficient That the habit was most extensively practised during former times even by the ancestors of civilised nations is clearly shown by the preservation of many curious customs and ceremonies of which Mr M Lennan l

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ice and craft they would have been glad to seize on any woman and would not have selected the more attractive ones But as soon as the practice of procuring wives from a distinct tribe was effected through barter as now occurs in many places the more attractive women would generally have been purchased The incessant crossing however between tribe and tribe which necessarily follows from any form of this habit would tend to keep all the people inhabiting the same country nearly uniform in character and this would interfere with the power of sexual selection in differentiating the tribes

The scarcity of women consequent on female infanticide leads also to another practice that of polyandry still common in several parts of the world and which formerly as Mr M Lennan believes prevailed almost universally but this latter conclusion is doubted by Mr Morgan and Sir J Lubbock When ever two or more men are compelled to marry one woman it is certain that all the women of the tribe will get married and the evil of no selection by the men of the more active women But under these circumstances the women no doubt will have the power of choice and will prefer the more attractive men Azara, for instance describes how carefully a Guana woman bargains for all sorts of privileges before accepting some one or more husbands and the men in consequence take unusual care of their personal appearance So

amongst the Todas of India, who practise polyandry the girls can accept or refuse any man " A very ugly man in these cases would perhaps altogether fail in getting a wife or get one later in life but the handsomer men although more successful in obtaining wives, would not, as far as we can see leave more offspring to inherit their beauty than the less handsome husbands of the same women

Early Betrothals and Slavery of Women —

With many savages it is the custom to betroth the females whilst mere infants and this would effectually prevent preference being exerted on either side according to personal appearance But it would not prevent the more attractive women from being afterwards stolen or taken by force from their husbands by the more powerful men and this often happens in Australia America and elsewhere The same consequences with reference to sexual selection would to a certain extent follow when women are valued almost solely as slaves or beasts of burden as is the case with many savages The men however at all times would prefer the handsomest slaves according to their standard of beauty

We thus see that several customs prevail with savages which must greatly interfere with or completely stop the action of sexual selection On the other hand the conditions of life to which savages are exposed and some of their habits are favourable to natural selection and this comes into play at the same time with sexual selection Savages are known to suffer severely from recurrent famines they do not increase their food by artificial means they rarely refrain from marriage and generally marry whilst young Consequently they must be subjected to occasional hard struggles for existence and the favoured individuals will alone survive

At a very early period before man attained to his present rank in the scale many of his conditions would be different from what now obtains amongst savages Judging from the analogy of the lower animals he would then either live with a single female or be a polyga

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most. The most powerful and able males would succeed best in obtaining attractive females. They would also succeed best in the general struggle for life and in defending their females, as well as their offspring, from enemies of all kinds. At this early period the ancestors of man would therefore flourish and succeed in nature to look forward to distant contingencies the male would not foresee the tending of all their children, especially the female children, would make their struggle for life more for the tribe. They would be governed more by their instincts and less by their reason. They are so even at the present day. They would not at that period have a partial feeling for one of the strongest of all instincts, common to all the lower animals, namely the love of their own offspring and consequently they would not have practised male infanticide. Women would not have been thus rendered scarce and polygamy would not have been practised for hardly any other cause except the scarcity of women seems sufficient to break down the natural and widely prevalent feeling of jealousy and the desire of achievement to possess female of himself. Polyandry would be a natural propensity to common-law marriages almost promiscuous and coarse though the better thoughts held that the latter had preceded polyandry. During primordial times there would be no early betrothals, for this implies restraint. They would remain as wild animals as wild beasts or beasts of burden. Both sexes, if the females as well as the males were permitted to select a mate, would choose their partners not for mere tal charms, proper to social position, but almost solely from sexual appearance. All the adults would marry pair and all the offspring, as far as that was possible, would be reared so that the struggle for existence would be periodically renewed. They would thus die with the same conditions for sexual selection as we have seen in the fourable than the late period when man had advanced his intellectual powers but had retrograded his instincts. Therefore, what we will not see all selection in him had in producing the differences between the races of man, and between man and the higher Quadrumana, the instinct would have been more powerful in the remotest period than the present day though probably not wholly lost.

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infantical early betrothals, a
and most glorious men—those who could
best defend and hunt for their families, who
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sessed the most property. As a large num-
ber of dogs and other animals, would succeed
in rearing a great number of off-
spring than the weak and poorer members
of the same tribes. There can also be no
doubt that such men would generally be able
to select the most attractive women. At pres-
ent the chiefs of nearly every tribe through-
out the world succeed in obtaining more than one
wife. I hear from Mr. Mantel that, until re-
cently almost every girl in New Zealand who
was pretty, promised to be pretty was
taken by a white man, the sailors, as Mr. C.

each race has its own title of beauty and is known to it is natural to man to admire each characteristic point in his domestic animals, dress, ornaments, and personal appearance when carried a title beyond the average of the other several foreign propositions be admitted and I cannot see that they are doubtful, it would be an unpleasant circumstance if the selection of the future race of man by the more powerful members of each tribe who would rear the next generation a great number of children, did not affect the lapse of many generations somewhat modify the character of the tribe.

When foreign breeds of our domestic animals are introduced into our country, we have a native breed to look after carefully to detect the few uses remaining at its end after several generations to his undying age. A great lesson unit of change which means of comparison exist. Thus if I were from a conscious selection during the series of generations—that is, the present time of the most approved individuals—without any wish of expectation of a result in the part of the breed. So again, if during many years two careful breeders rear animals of the same family and do not compare them together or with a common standard, the animals are

Anthropological Review Jan., 1890, p. xvi.

The *Manner of Action of Sexual Selection*
and *Mankind*.—With primeral man under

found to have become to it

of his own mind—his own taste and judgment—on his animals. What reason then can be assigned why similar results should not follow from the long continued selection of the most admired women by those men of each tribe who were able to rear the greatest number of children? This would be unconscious selection for an effect would be produced independently of any wish or expectation on the part of the men who preferred certain women to others.

Let us suppose the members of a tribe practising some form of marriage to pread over an unoccupied continent they would soon split up into distinct hordes separated from each other by various barriers and still more effectually by the incessant wars between all barbarous nations. The hordes would thus be exposed to slightly different conditions and habits of life and would sooner or later come to differ in some small degree. As soon as this occurred each isolated tribe would form for itself a slightly different standard of beauty, and then unconscious selection would come into action through the more powerful and leading men preferring certain women to others. Thus the differences between the tribes at first very slight would gradually and inevitably be more or less increased.

With animals in a state of nature many characters proper to the males such as size strength special weapons courage and pugnacity have been acquired through the law of battle. The semi-human progenitors of man like their allies the Quadrumana will almost certainly have been this.

Other characters proper to the males of the lower animals such as bright colour and various ornaments have been acquired by the more attractive males having been preferred by the females. There are however exceptional cases in which the males

are the selectors instead of having been the selected. We recognise such cases by the females being more highly ornamented than the males—their ornamental characters having been transmitted exclusively or chiefly to their female offspring. One such case has been described in the order to which man belongs, that of the Rhesus monkey.

Man is more powerful in body and mind than woman and in the savage state he keeps her in a far more abject state of bondage than does the male of any other animal therefore it is not surprising that he should have gained the power of selection. Women are everywhere conscious of the value of their own beauty and when they have the means they take more delight in decorating themselves with all sorts of ornaments than do men. They borrow the plumes of male birds with which nature has decked this sex in order to charm the females. As women have long been selected for beauty it is not surprising that some of their successive variations should have been transmitted exclusively to the same sex consequently that they should have transmitted beauty in a somewhat higher degree to their female than to their male offspring and thus have become more beautiful according to general opinion than men. Women however certainly transmit most of their characters, including some beauty to their offspring of both sexes so that the continued preference by the men of each race for the more attractive women according to their standard of taste will have tended to modify in the same manner all the individuals of both sexes belonging to the race.

With respect to the other form of sexual selection (which with the lower animals is much the more common) namely when the females are the selectors and accept only those males which excite or charm them most.

Clear cases to the instance from an ancient progenitor who thus gained his ornaments. But this form of selection may have occasionally acted during later times for in little barbarous tribes the women have more power in choosing reject

tribes of Arctic America repeatedly ran away from her husband and joined her father and with the Charras of S America, according to Azara, divorce is quite peculiar. Among the Abipones, man chooses wife gains with the parents both the price. But it frequently happens that the girl rescues what has been stolen from her father's house. Cf. A. U.

Leslie who was intimately acquainted with the Caffers, says, it is a mistake to imagine that girls are sold by their father in the same manner and with the same liberty with which he would dispose of a cow among the tribes of S Africa, where a girl is not as well as that of the parent. Mr Wood Reade made inquiries from which I expect that in general we find in Africa, and he informs me that the women at least among the more intelligent pagans tribes, like the Iswhims

Tierra del Fuego a young man first visits to console the parents before he goes to his service and then he attempts to marry. If the girl is not satisfied with him he will go and hide himself in the woods until he admires her art of red of looking for her and then he proposes to her but this seldom happens. In the Fijian land the man seizes on the woman whom he wishes for his wife by actual pretence of force but reaches the girl in the field and then he is left to propose to her with his hands to some one who can protect him if he wishes. He is satisfied then that he is settled for the time. With the Halmaherans the regular practice is to see the bride and groom together for a month, a fair start and Clark was assured that no violence occurred. I give the example, unless he has participated in the process. Amongst the wild tribes of the Malay Archipelago there is also racing match and it appears from Mr B. account, as Sir J Lubbock remarks, that the race is to the swift. The bride then goes but the young man who has the good fortune to please himself in the bride's company must now with the same reluctance prepare with the bride's father for the marriage.

are young men forming tender passions, and laudable taciturnity. Additional cases could be given. We thus see that with savages the women are not quite so subject to a fatal result to marriage as has often been supposed. They cannot tempt the man who in the present and can sometimes reject those whom they dislike. Their behavior after marriage I refer to on the part of the woman, steadily acting in any direction, would ultimately affect the character of the tribe if the woman would generally choose not to marry the handsome man, according to their standard of taste but those who were at the same time best able to defend and support the man. Such a well-endowed pair would commonly rear a large number of offspring than the less favored. The same result would be likely to follow in a still more marked manner if there was selection in both directions, that is, if the man attracts and at the same time the woman follows him now we are to suppose and we are preferred by the man to act as women. And then the difference of selection seems actually to have occurred especially during the arduous period of fertility.

land but it manifests from many facts given by the Rev. M. Booth that the same

about the same. They have been known to propose to a man, and they do not rarely run away with a married lover. So again, M.

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the Zoological Society 18 3, p. 429

We will now examine a little more closely some of the characters which distinguished the several races of man from one another and from the lower animals namely the greater or less deficiency of hair on the body and the colour of the skin. We need say nothing about the diversity in the shape of the features

been acted on through sexual selection but we have no means of judging whether they have been acted on chiefly from the male or female side. The musical faculties of man have likewise been already discussed.

Absence of Hair on the Body and its Development on the Face and Head—From the presence of the woolly hair or lanugo on the human foetus and of rudimentary hairs scattered over the body during maturity we may infer that man is descended from some animal which was born hairy and remained so during its life. This is an inconvenience and

wet weather. As Mr Wallace has shown natives in all countries are glad to protect their naked backs and shoulders with some slight covering. No one supposes that the nakedness of the skin is any direct advantage to man; his body therefore cannot have been divested of hair through natural selection. Nor as shewn in a former chapter have we any evidence that this can be due to the direct action of climate or that it is the result of correlated development.

The absence of hair on the body is to a certain extent a secondary sexual character for in all parts of the world women are less hairy than men. Therefore we may reasonably suspect that this character has been gained through sexual selection. We know that the faces of several species of monkeys and large

surfaces at the posterior end of the body of other species have been denuded of hair and thus we may safely attribute to sexual selection for these surfaces are not only vividly coloured but sometime as with the male mandrill and female rhesus much more vividly in the one sex than in the other especially during the breeding season. I am informed by Mr Bartlett that as these animals gradually reach maturity the naked surfaces grow larger compared with the size of their bodies. The hair however appears to have been removed not for the sake of nudity but that the colour of the skin may be more fully displayed. So

As the body in woman is less hairy than in man and as this character is common to all races we may conclude that it was our female semi-human ancestors who were first divested of hair and that this occurred at an extremely remote period before the several races had diverged from a common stock. Whilst our female ancestors were gradually acquiring this new character of nudity they must have transmitted it almost equally to their offspring.

sex or age. There is nothing surprising in a partial loss of hair having been esteemed as an ornament by our ape-like progenitor for we have seen that innumerable strange characters have been thus esteemed by animals of all kinds and have consequently been gained through sexual selection. Nor is it surprising that a slightly injurious character should have been thus acquired for we know that this is the case with the plumes of certain birds and with the horns of certain stags.

The females of some of the anthropoid apes as stated in a former chapter are somewhat more hairy than the males.

With respect to the competition through sexual selection it is well to bear in mind the New Zealand proverb. There is no woman for a hairy man. All who have seen photographs of the Siamese hairy family will admit how ludicrously ludicrous is the opposite extreme of excessive hairiness. And the king of Siam had to bribe a man to marry the first hairy woman in the family and she trans-

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SECONDARY SEXUAL CHARACTERS OF MAN

leaves were modified in the respects for the same purpose and by the same means so that women have acquired sweet voices and become more beautiful than men.

It deserves attention that with mankind the conditions were in many respects much more favourable for sexual selection during a very early period, when man had only just attained to the rank of manhood, than during later times. For he would then, as we may safely conclude, have been guided more by his instinctive passions, and less by foresight or reason. He would have jealously guarded his wife or wives. He would not have practised infanticide nor valued his wife merely as a useful slave nor have been betrothed to them during infancy. Hence we may infer that the races of men were differentiated, as far as sexual selection is concerned, in chief part at a very remote epoch and this conclusion throws light on the remarkable fact that the most ancient period, of which we have not as yet a record, the races of man had already come to differ nearly or quite as much as they do at the present day.

The views here advanced on the part which sexual selection has played in the history of man, want scientific precision. He who does not admit this accuracy in the case of the lower animals, will disregard all that I have written

in the last chapters on man. We cannot positively say that this character but not that, has been thus modified; it has, however, been shown that the races of man differ from each other and from their nearest allies, in certain characters which are of no service to them in their daily habits of life, and which it is extremely probable would have been modified through sexual selection. We have seen that with the lowest savages the people of each tribe admire their own characteristic qualities,—the shape of the head and face, the squareness of the cheek-bones, the prominence of the depression of the colour of the skin, the length of the hair on the head, the absence of hair on the face and body, the presence of a great beard, and so forth. If these and their touch points could hardly fail to be slowly and gradually exaggerated from the more powerful and able men in each tribe who would succeed in rearing the largest number of offspring, having selected during many generations for their virtues, the most strongly characterised and therefore most attractive men. For my own part I conclude that of all the causes which have led to the differences in external appearance between the races of man, and to a certain extent between man and the lower animals, sexual selection has been the most efficient.

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Nevertheless with mankind the habit of eradicating the beard and the hairs on the body would probably not have arisen until these had already become by some means reduced

It is difficult to form any judgment as to how the hair on the head became developed to its present great length in many races. Eschricht²⁸ states that in the human foetus the hair on the face during the fifth month is longer than that on the head and this indicates that our semi-human progenitors were not furnished with long tresses which must therefore have been a late acquisition. This is likewise indicated by the extraordinary difference in the length of the hair in the different races: in the negro the hair forms a mere curly mat with us it is of great length and with the American natives it not rarely reaches to the ground. Some species of *Semnopithecus* have their heads covered with moderately long hair and this probably serves as an ornament and was acquired through sexual selection. The same view may perhaps be extended to mankind for we know that long tresses are now and were formerly much admired as may be observed in the works of almost every poet. St Paul says if a woman have long hair it is a glory to her and we have seen that in North America a chief was elected solely from the length of his hair.

Colour of the Skin—The best kind of evidence that in man the colour of the skin has been modified through sexual selection is scanty for in most races the sexes do not differ in this respect and only slightly as we have seen in others. We know however from the many facts already given that the colour of the skin is regarded by the men of all races as a highly important element in their beauty so that it is a character which would be likely to have been modified through selection as has occurred in innumerable instances with the lower animals. It seems at first sight a monstrous supposition that the jet blackness of the negro should have been gained through

sexual selection but this view is supported by various analogies and we know that negroes admire their own colour. With mammals when the sexes differ in colour the male is often black or much darker than the female and it depends merely on the form of inheritance whether this or any other tint is transmitted to both sexes or to one alone. The resemblance to a negro in miniature of *Ishmael satanas* with his jet black skin white rolling eyeballs and hair parted on the top of the head is almost ludicrous.

The colour of the face differs much more widely in the various kinds of monkeys than it does in the races of man and we have some reason to believe that the red blue orange almost white and black tints of their skin even when common to both sexes as well as the bright colours of their fur and the ornamental tufts about the head have all been acquired through sexual selection. As the order of development during growth generally indicates the order in which the characters of a species have been lost.

as much in colour as do the adults although their bodies are as completely destitute of hair we have some slight evidence that the tints of the different races were acquired at a period subsequent to the removal of the hair which must have occurred at a very early period in the history of man.

Summary—We may conclude that the greater size strength courage pugnacity and energy of man in comparison with woman were acquired during primeval times and have subsequently been augmented chiefly through the contests of rival males for the possession of the females. The greater intellectual vigour and power of invention in man is probably due to natural selection combined with the inherited effects of habit for the most able men will have succeeded best in defending and providing for themselves and for their wives and offspring. As far as the

we can or excite the opposite sex and transmitted them only to their male offspring. The females apparently first lost their bodies the nude of hair also as a sexual ornament but they transmitted this character almost equally to both sexes. It is not improbable that the

skull to be noted
²⁷Über die Richtung d. s. 40

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cannot be accounted for by any form of selection, or by the inherited effects of the use and disuse of parts. We know however that many strange and strongly marked peculiarities of structure occasionally appear in our domesticated productions, and if their unknown causes were to act more influentially they would probably become common to all the individuals of the species. We may hope however that under standard something about the cause of occasional modifications, especially through the study of monstrosities, to trace the labours of experimentalists such as those of M. Camille Daresse, are full of promise for the future. In general we can only say that the cause of such slight variation and of such microevolution is much more in the constitution of the organism, than in the nature of the surrounding conditions though new and changed conditions certainly play an important part in exciting organic changes in many kinds.

Through the means just specified aided perhaps by the assistance of undescended man has been raised to his present state. But since he is related to the rank of manhood he has diverged into different races, as they may be more fully called, sub-species. Some of these such as the Negro and European, are so distinct that, if specimens had been brought to

us, we should find that

the difference can be accounted for

It must not be supposed that each race from the different races, and fall from common stock, can be traced back to an original pair of progenitors. On the contrary, all races tag in the process of modification, although individuals may live in an environment better fitted for the conditions of life though in different degrees, we find that variations in greater numbers than the laws would fitted. The process would have been such that it would be by man, which does not intentionally select particular individuals, but breeds from all the inferior individuals, and neglects the inferior. It thus slowly but surely modifies his stock, and unconscious forms a new strain. So with respect to modifications as acquired and dependent on selection, and different variations arising from the nature of the organism and the acts in

the surrounding conditions or from changed habits of life no single pair will have been modified much more than the other pairs in habit though the same country for it will have been continually blended through free intercrossing.

By considering the embryological structure of man, — the homologies which he presents with the lower animals, — the rudiments which he retains, — and the reversions to which he is liable we can partly recall a magnification of the form and condition of our early progenitors and can approximately place them in their proper place in the zoological series. We thus learn that man is descended from a hairy-tailed quadruped, probably arboreal in its habits, and an inhabitant of the Old World. This creature if its whole structure had been examined by naturalists, would have been classed amongst the *Quadrumania*, as surely as the bill more ancient progenitor of the Old and New World monkeys. The *Quadrumania* and the higher mammals are probably derived from an ancient marsupial animal and thus through long series descended from some amphibian-like creature and then a fish-like animal. In the dim of scurrying through the past we can see that the early progenitor of all the vertebrate animals has been an aquatic animal provided with branched with the two sexes united in the same individual, and with the most important organs of the body (such as the brain and heart) imperfectly developed. This animal seems to have been more like the larvae of the existing marine ascidians than any other known form.

The high standard of intellectual powers and moral disposition is the greatest difficulty which presents itself after we have been drawn to this conclusion in the origin of man. But we must admit the principle of evolution, we must see that the mental powers of the high animals, which are the same in kind with those of man, though so different in degree, are capable of advancement. The interval between the mental powers of the highest ape and of fish, or between those of an ant and a seal insect, is immense yet their development does not offer any special difficulty for with our domesticated animals, the mental faculties are certainly variable and the variations are inherited. No one doubts that they are of the utmost importance to animals in that nature. The reference to conditions are favourable for their development

CHAPTER XXI

GENERAL SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

advanced are highly speculative and some no doubt will prove erroneous but I have in every case given the reasons which have led me to one view rather than to another. It seemed worth while to try how far the principle of evolution more correct of man progress but false do little harm for every one takes a salutary pleasure in proving their falseness and when this is done one path toward error is closed and the road to truth is often at the same time opened.

The main conclusion here arrived at, and now held by many naturalists who are well competent to form a sound judgment is that man is descended from some less highly organized form. The grounds upon which this conclusion rests will never be shaken for the close similarity between man and the lower animals in embryonic development as well as in innumerable points of structure and constitution both of high and of the most trifling importance—the rudiments which he retains and the abnormal reversion to which he is occasionally liable—are facts which cannot be disputed. They have long been known but until recently they told us nothing with respect to the origin of man. Now when viewed by the light of our knowledge of the whole organic world their meaning is unmistakable. The great principle of evolution stands up clear and firm when these groups or facts are considered in connection with others such as the mutual affinities of the members of the same group, their geographical distribution in past and present times and their geological succession. It is incredible that all these facts should speak falsely. He who is not content to look like a savage at the phenomena of nature as disconnected cannot any longer believe that man is the work of a separate act of creation. He will be forced to admit that the close resemblance of the embryo of man to that for instance of a dog—the construction of his

skull limbs and whole frame on the same plan with that of other mammals independently of the uses to which the parts may be put—the occasional re-appearance of various structures, for instance of several muscles which man does not normally possess but which are common to the Quadrumana—and a crowd of analogous facts—all point in the plainest manner to the conclusion that man is the descendant with other mammals of a common progenitor.

We have seen that man incessantly presents individual differences in all parts of his body and in his mental faculties. These differences or variations seem to be induced by the same general causes and to obey the same laws as with the lower animals. In both cases similar laws of inheritance prevail. Man tends to increase at a greater rate than his means of subsistence consequently he is occasionally subjected to a severe struggle for existence and natural selection will have effected whatever lies within its scope. A succession of strongly marked variations of a similar nature is by no means requisite slight fluctuating differences in the individual suffice for the work of natural selection not that we have any reason to suppose that in the same species all parts of the organisation tend to vary to the same degree. We may feel assured that the inherited effects of the long continued use or disuse of parts will have done much in the same direction with natural selection. Modifications formerly of importance though no longer of any special use are long inherited. When one part is modified other parts change through the principle of correlation of which we have instances in many curious cases of correlated monstrosities. Something may be attributed to the influence of the surrounding conditions.

Sexual selection

No doubt man as well as every other animal presents structures which seem to our limited knowledge not to be of any service to him nor to have been so formerly either for the general conditions of life or in the relations of one sex to the other. Such structures

scope of public punishment, and receive praise and their opposite blame. But with this class of used reasons reason often errs, and many bad notions and base superstitions come within the same scope, and are then esteemed as high virtues, and their breach as heinous crimes.

The moral faculties are generally and justly esteemed as of higher value than the intellectual powers. But we should bear in mind that the activity of the mind in vividly recalling past impressions is one of the fundamental though secondary base of conscience. This is the strongest argument for educating and stimulating in all possible ways the intellectual faculties of every human being. No doubt man with torpid mind and his social affections and sympathies are well disposed will be led to good actions, and may have a fairly sensitive conscience. But what renders the imagination more vivid and strengthens the habit of recalling and comparing past impressions, will make the conscience more sensitive and make some what compensation for weak social affections and sympathies.

The moral nature of man has reached a present standard, partly through gradual accretion of his reasoning powers and consequently of just public punishment, but especially from his sympathies having been rendered more tender and widely diffused through the effects of habit, example, nature, and reflection. It is not improbable that all long practice virtuous tendencies may be inherited. With the more civilized races, the connection of the existence of an all-seeing Deity has had positive

been very great. But this is a rash argument. We should thus be compelled to believe in the existence of many cruel and malignant spirits, only a little more powerful than man for the belief in them is far more general than in a beneficent Deity. The doctrine of a universal and beneficent Creator does not seem to arise in the mind of man until he has been led to it.

from common

ask how does this bear on the belief in immortality of the soul. The barbarous race of man, as J. Lubbock has shown, possess no clear belief of this kind. But arguments derived from the primitive beliefs of savages are as weak as just seen. If there is no such ailment, persons feel an anxiety from the impossibility of determining what precise period in the development of the individual, from the first trace of a minute germinal cell, man becomes an immortal being and there is no more to cause anxiety because the period cannot possibly be determined in the gradual increase of the soul.

is bound to show why it is more

explain the origin of man as a distinct species by descent from some form through gradual law of variation and natural selection than to explain the birth of the individual through the law of ordinary reproduction. The birth of both of the species and of the individual are equally part of the grand sequence of events, which the mind refuses to accept as the result of blind chance. The understanding reflects that chance is not a law, and that the laws of nature are blind to the light of reason. The understanding of the dissemination of each seed—and the changes, have all been ordained for some special purpose.

Selection has been treated in great

The Rev. J. A. Pictet gives discussion of this subject in his *New Theories and the Old Faith*, 1870.

escape him in actions, controlled by reason, afford him the safest rule. His conscience then becomes the supreme judge and motivator. Not less than first of the origin of the moral sense lies in the social instincts, including sympathy, and these instincts doubtless were primarily gained, as in the case of the lower animals, through natural selection.

The belief in God has often been advanced as not only the greatest but the most complete of all the distinctions between man and the lower animals. It is however impossible as we have seen, to maintain that this belief is innate or instinctive in man. On the other hand, belief in all pervading spirit always seems to be universal and apparently follows from

through natural selection. The same conclusion may be extended to man: the intellect must have been all important to him even at a very remote period, as enabling him to invent and use language to make weapons, tools, traps, &c. whereby with the aid of his social habits he long ago became the most dominant of all living creatures.

A great stride in the development of the intellect will have followed as soon as the half-art and half-instinct of language came into use for the continued use of language will have reacted on the brain and produced an inherited effect, and this again will have reacted on the improvement of language. As Mr. Chauncey Wright¹ has well remarked, the largeness of the brain in man relatively to his body compared with the lower animals may be attributed in chief part to the early use of some simple form of language—that wonderful engine which affixes signs to all sorts of objects and qualities and excites trains of thought which would never arise from the mere impression of the senses, or if they did arise could not be followed out. The higher intellectual powers of man, such as those of ratiocination, abstraction, self-consciousness, &c. probably follow from the continued improvement and exercise of the other mental faculties.

The development of the moral qualities is a more interesting problem. The foundation lies in the social instincts, including under this term the family ties. These instincts are highly complex, and in the case of the

the distinct emotion of sympathy. Animals endowed with the social instincts take pleasure in one another's company, warn one another of danger, defend and aid one another in many ways. These instincts do not extend to all the individuals of the species, but only to those of the same community. As they are highly beneficial to the species, they have in all probability been acquired through natural selection.

A moral being is one who is capable of reflecting on his past actions and their motives—of approving of some and disapproving of others—and the fact that man is the one being who certainly deserves this designation is the greatest of all distinctions between him and the lower animals. But in the fourth chapter I have endeavoured to shew that the moral sense

follows firstly from the enduring and ever-present nature of the social

— to this condition of mind man cannot avoid looking both backwards and forwards and comparing past impressions. Hence after some temporary desire or passion has mastered his social instincts, he reflects and compares the now weakened impression of such past impulses with the ever present social instincts, and he then feels that sense of dissatisfaction which all unsatisfied instincts leave behind them; he therefore resolves to act differently for the future—and this is conscience. Any instinct permanently stronger or more enduring than another gives rise to a feeling which we express by saying that it ought to be obeyed. A pointer dog, if able to reflect on his past conduct, would say to himself, I ought (as indeed we say of him) to have pointed at that hare and not have yielded to the passing temptation of hunting it.

Social animals are impelled partly by a wish to aid the members of their community in a general manner, but more commonly to perform certain definite actions. Man is impelled by the same general wish to aid his fellows, but has few or no special instincts. He differs also from the lower animals in the power of expressing his desires by words, which thus become a guide to the aid required and bestowed. The motive to give aid is likewise much modified in man; it no longer consists solely of a blind instinctive impulse, but is much influenced by the praise or blame of his fellows. The appreciation and the bestowal of praise and blame both rest on sympathy, and this emotion, as we have seen, is one of the most important elements of the social instincts. Sympathy, though gained as an instinct, is also much strengthened by exercise or habit. As all men desire their own happiness, praise or blame is bestowed on actions and motives according as

— a standard of right and wrong. As the reasoning powers advance and experience is gained, the remoter effects of certain lines of conduct on the character of the individual and on the general good are perceived, and then the self-regarding virtues come within the

¹ On the Limits of Natural Selection, in the *North American Review*, Oct. 1870, p. 295.

much remains doubtful but I have endeavoured to give a fair view of the whole case. In the lower divisions of the animal kingdom sexual selection seems to have done nothing such animals are often affixed for life to the same spot or have the sexes combined in the same individual or what is still more important their perceptive and intellectual faculties are not sufficiently advanced to allow of the feelings of love and jealousy or of the exertion of choice. When however we come to the Arthropoda and Vertebrata even to the lowest classes in these two great subkingdoms sexual selection has effected much.

In the several great classes of the animal kingdom—in mammals birds reptiles fishes insects and even crustaceans—the differences between the sexes follow nearly the same

pattern with their rivals. They are generally stronger and endowed with age and pugnacity

exclusively or in a much higher degree than the females with organs for vocal or instrumental music and with odoriferous glands. They are ornamental with infinitely diversified appendages and with the most brilliant or conspicuous colour often arranged in elegant patterns whilst the females are unadorned. When the sexes differ in more important structures

only part of the year namely the breeding season. They have in many cases been more or less transferred to the females and in the latter case they often appear in her as mere rudiments. They are lost or never gained by the males after emasculation. Generally they are not developed in the male during early youth but appear a short time before the age for reproduction. Hence in most cases the young of both sexes resemble each other and the female somewhat resembles her young offspring throughout life. In almost every great class a few anomalous cases occur where there has been an almost complete transposition of the characters proper to the two sexes the females assuming characters which properly belong to the males. This surprising uniformity in the laws regulating the differences between the

sexes in so many and such widely separated classes is intelligible if we admit the action of one common cause namely sexual selection.

Sexual selection depends on the success of

or the same sex generally the males in order to drive away or kill their rivals the female remaining passive whilst in the other the struggle is likewise between the individuals of the same sex in order to excite or charm those of the opposite sex generally the females which no longer remain passive but select the more agreeable partners. This latter kind of selection is closely analogous to that which man unintentionally yet effectually brings to

modify the breed.

The laws of inheritance determine whether characters gained through sexual selection by either sex shall be transmitted to the same sex or to both as well as the age at which they shall be developed. It appears that variations arising late in life are commonly transmitted to one and the same sex. Variability is the necessary basis for the action of selection and is wholly independent of it. It follows from this that variations of the same general nature have often been taken advantage of and accumulated through sexual selection in relation to the propagation of the species as well as through natural selection in relation to the general purposes of life. Hence secondary sexual

The modifications acquired through sexual selection are often so strongly pronounced that the two sexes have frequently been ranked as distinct species or even as distinct genera. Such strongly marked differences must be in some manner highly important and we know that they have been acquired in some instances at the cost not only of inconvenience but of exposure to actual danger.

The belief in the power of sexual selection rests chiefly on the following considerations. Certain characters are confined to one sex and this alone renders it probable that in most cases they are connected with the act of repro-

1. What labors who descend
 the distant future. But we are not here concerned with hopes or fears, only with the truth as far as our reason permits us to discover it.
 I have given the evidence to the best of my ability. We must however acknowledge as it seems to me that man with all his noble qualities with sympathy which feels for the most debased with benevolence which tends not only to other men but to the humblest creature with his god-like intellect which has penetrated into the movements and constitution of the solar system—with all these exalted powers—Man still bears in his bodily frame the indelible stamp of his lowly origin.

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 scale and the fact of his ...
 stand of his ...
 may give him hope for ...

to repeat what I have so lately said on the manner in which sexual selection apparently has acted on man both on the male and female side causing the two sexes to differ in body and mind and the several races to differ from each other in various characters as well as from their ancient and lowly organised progenitors

He who admits the principle of sexual selection will be led to the remarkable conclusion that the nervous system

various bodily structures and of certain mental qualities. Courage, pugnacity, perseverance, strength and size of body, weapons of all kinds, musical organs, both vocal and instrumental, bright colours and ornamental appendages have all been indirectly gained by the one sex or the other through the exertion of choice, the influence of love and jealousy, and the appreciation of the beautiful in sound, colour or form, and these powers of the mind manifestly depend on the development of the brain.

Man scans with scrupulous care the character and pedigree of his horses, cattle, and dogs before he matches them, but when he comes to his own marriage he rarely or never takes any such care. He is impelled by nearly the same motives as the lower animals, when they are left to their own free choice, though he is in so far superior to them that he highly values mental charms and virtues. On the other hand he is strongly attracted by mere wealth or rank. Yet he might by selection do something not only for the bodily constitution and frame of his offspring, but for their intellectual and moral qualities. Both sexes ought to refrain from marriage if they are in

known to be good service who and towards this end. When the principles of breeding and inheritance are better understood we shall not hear ignorant members of our legislature rejecting with scorn a plan for ascertaining whether or not consanguineous marriages are injurious to man.

The advancement of the welfare of mankind is a most intricate problem, all ought to refrain from marriage who cannot avoid subjecting poverty to their children, for poverty is not only a great evil but tends to its own in-

crease by leading to recklessness in marriage. On the other hand as Mr Galton has remarked if the prudent avoid marriage whilst the reckless marry the in-

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use should not be prevented by laws or customs from succeeding best and rearing the largest number of offspring. Important as the struggle for existence has been and even still is, yet as far as the highest part of man's nature is concerned there are other agencies more important. For the moral qualities are advanced either directly or indirectly much more through the effects of habit, the reasoning powers, instruction.

which afforded the basis for the development of the moral sense.

The main conclusion arrived at in this work, namely, that man is descended from some lowly organised form, will I regret to think be highly distasteful to many. But there can hardly be a doubt that we are descended from barbarian. The astonishment which I felt on first seeing a party of Fuegians on a wild and broken shore will never be forgotten by me for the reflection at once rushed into my mind—such were our ancestors. The women were absolutely naked and bedaubed with paint, their long hair was tangled, their mouths frothed with excitement and their expression was wild, startled and distrustful. They possessed hardly any art, and like wild animals lived on what they could catch, they had no government and were merciless to every one not of their own nation. He who has seen a savage in his native land will not feel much shame if forced to acknowledge that the blood of some more humble creature

pass to make their display fully and if made before two observers, they turn to him who seems to pay the most attention.

With respect to the origin of the habit, von Fischer remarks that this monkey like to have their naked hind end patted, stroked and that they then grunt with pleasure. They sit on the turn this part of their bodies to other monkeys to have bits of dirt piled off and so no doubt it would be with respect to the rns. But the habit with adult animals is connected to certain extent with sexual feelings, for von Fischer watched through glass door a female *Cynopithecus* ger and she d ring several days, *miter hie nd dem M uchen mit gurgeln* Tonen d st l g oher *Sil flach* *arte, was ich f uher n d eem* *Ther lemerit hote* *Dem t W l d es C gen* *stundes riepte sich das M uchen hil h* *denn poliert heftig den St ben* *benfalls gurgelnde Laute ausstossend* As all this in which the hind part of the

the habit of nesting has been retained by some birds with the feel happy for instance by the common robin, and the habit of congregating has been retained by the black grouse during other seasons of the year.

I beg leave to refer to one other point in relation to sexual selection. It has been objected that this form of selection, as far as the ornament of the males are concerned implies that all females within the same district must possess and exercise exactly the same taste. It should however be observed in the first place that although the range of animal of a species may be very large it is by no means indistinct. I have elsewhere given a good instance of this fact in the pigeon of which there are at least a hundred varieties differing widely in their colours, and at least a score of varieties of the wild pigeon in the same kind of way. But the range of colour in these two species is extremely distinct. Therefore the females of natural species cannot have an unlimited scope for their taste. In the second place I presume that the female of sexual

I should have thought that there was no need for the sex to recognise each other at a distance. It seems to me more probable that the bright colours, which on the face of the hind end, as in the mandrill both serve as a

should have been this part of the bodies which has been more less decorated. The fact that it is only the monkey thus characterised which, as far as I present know, act in this manner as greet towards the male renders it difficult to the habit was first acquired from some independent cause, and that afterwards the parts in question were coloured as sexual ornament with the colouring and the habit of turning round were first acquired through animal and sexual selection, and that afterwards the habit was retained as given place as a greeting, through the principle of unlimited association. This principle appears to come to play many occasions thus it is generally admitted that the song of birds serves mainly as an attractive or gith season and that the loud or great congregations of the black grouse are connected with their courtship behaviour.

more in which the beauty depends. A mandrill has not only the hind end of his

the individual in any way. The males which were the handsomest of the most tractable in any manner of the females would pair off first, and would leave the more off spring than other males. The offspring of the form although an unsightly intercrossed with the inherent peculiarity of the individuals transmitted an increased tendency to vary in the same manner. Consequently the whole body of the male inhabiting the same country would tend from the effects of constant intercrossing to become modified almost uniformly but some times little more in the character and some times in the things which at an extremely slow rate all ultimately being thus

SUPPLEMENTAL NOTE

ON SEXUAL SELECTION IN RELATION TO MONKEYS

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In the discussion on Sexual Selection in my *Descent of Man* no case interested and perplexed me so much as the brightly-coloured hinder ends and adjoining parts of certain monkeys. As these parts are more brightly coloured in one sex than the other and as they become more brilliant during the season of love I concluded that the colours had been gained as a sexual attraction. I was well aware that I thus laid myself open to ridicule though in fact it is not more surprising that a monkey should display his bright red hinder end than that a peacock should display his magnificent tail. I had however at that time no evidence of monkeys exhibiting this part of their bodies during their courtship and such display in the case of birds affords the best evidence that the ornaments of the males are of service to them by attracting or exciting the females. I have lately read an article by Joh. von Fischer of Gotha published in *Der Zoologische Garten* April 1876 on the expression of monkeys under various emotions which is well worthy of study by any one interested in the subject and which shews that the author is a careful and acute observer. In this article there is an account of the behaviour of a young male mandrill when he first beheld himself in a looking glass and it is added that after a time he turned round and presented his red hinder end to the glass. Accordingly I wrote to Herr J. von Fischer to ask what he supposed was the meaning of this strange action and he has sent me two long letters full of new and curious details which will I hope be hereafter published. He says that he was himself at first perplexed by the above action and was thus led carefully to observe several individuals of various other species of monkeys, which he has long kept in his house. He finds that not only the mandrill (*Cynocephalus mormon*) but the drill (*C. leucophaeus*) and three other kinds of baboons (*C. hamadryas sphinx* and *babouin*) also *Cynopithecus niger* and *Macacus rhesus* and *nemestrinus* turn this part of their bodies, which in all the species is more or less brightly coloured to him when they are pleased and to other persons as a sort of greeting. He took

pains to cure a *Macacus rhesus* which he had kept for five years of this incontinent habit and at last succeeded. These monkeys are particularly apt to act in this manner grinning at the same time when first introduced to a new monkey but often also to their old monkey friends and after this mutual display they begin to play together. The young mandrill ceased spontaneously after a time to act in this manner towards his master von Fischer but continued to do so towards persons who were strangers and to new monkeys. A young *Cynopithecus niger* never acted excepting on one occasion in this way towards his master but frequently towards strangers, and continues to do so up to the present time. From these facts von Fischer concludes that the monkeys which behaved in this manner before a looking glass (viz. the mandrill drill *Cynopithecus niger*, *Macacus rhesus* and *nemestrinus*) acted as if their reflection were a new acquaintance. The mandrill and drill which have their hinder ends especially ornamented display it even whilst quite young more frequently and more ostentatiously than do the other kinds. Next in order comes *Cynocephalus hamadryas* whilst the other species act in this manner seldom. The individuals however of the same species vary in this respect and some which were very shy never displayed their hinder ends. It deserves special attention that von Fischer has never seen any species purposely exhibit the hinder part of its body if not at all coloured. This remark applies to many individuals of *Macacus cynomolgus* and *Cercopithecus radiatus* (which is closely allied to *M. rhesus*) to three species of *Cercopithecus* and several American monkeys. The habit of turning the hinder end as a greeting to an old friend or new acquaintance which seems to us so odd is not really more so than the habits of many savages, for instance that of rubbing their bellies with their hands or rubbing noses together. The habit with the mandrill and drill seems to be instinctive or inherited as it was followed by very young animals but it is modified or guided like so many other instincts, by observation for von Fischer says that they take

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rendered more attractive to the females. The process is like that which I have called unconscious selection by man and of which I have given several instances. In one country the inhabitants value a fleet or light dog or horse and in another country a

ages have intermigrated and intercrossed and where moreover the variations will probably not have been identically the same sexual selection might cause the mor

to have been modified in the desired manner almost uniformly though differently in each country. In two absolutely distinct countries inhabited by the same species the individuals of which can never during long

different tastes with respect to form sound or colour. However this may be I have given in my *Descent of Man* instances of closely allied birds inhabiting the

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